

School of Education

**Codeswitching by Tertiary Level Teachers of Business English:
A Vietnamese Perspective**

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Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made. This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'ngluon', is written over a light blue rectangular background.

Signed:

Date: 16th May, 2015.

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Abstract

Code switching (CS) - the use of students' first language in classes conducted in a second language - has long been a controversial topic in the area of language teaching and second language acquisition. While CS has been widely investigated in a variety of contexts, little empirical research has been undertaken in Vietnam.

This study examines the CS practice of Vietnamese teachers in content-based tertiary level Business English classes, the accounts the teachers articulated for their CS practice and students' perceptions of their teachers' CS behaviour.

In order to achieve the research objectives, data were collected from teachers and students through three collection strategies: non-participant observation, stimulated recall interviews, and focus group sessions. The data generated were analysed by using a constant comparative approach.

The study found that CS did occur in the observed classes, and that it served particular functions. The interviews with the teachers indicated their support for the use of CS in their pedagogical practice. The students reported overwhelmingly positive perceptions of their teachers' CS behaviour, although they suggested that this practice should be balanced.

The findings of this study contribute to our understanding of bilingual discourse and CS practice in content and language integrated classrooms, particularly at tertiary level in Vietnam.

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Corporation
ASEAN	Association of South East Nation
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CM	Code Mixing
CS	Code switching
CUCB	Common Underlying Conceptual Base
DLM	Dual Language Model
EL	Embedded Language
FL	Foreign Language
FLC	Faculty of Language & Cultural Studies
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
ML	Matrix Language
MLF	Matrix Language Frame Model
MM	Markedness Model
MOET	Ministry of Education & Training
RO	Right & Obligation
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEIC	Test of English for International Communication
WTO	World Trade Organisation

Chapter One: Introduction

This introductory chapter provides an overview of the study in ten sections. The first section outlines background to the study and the research problem that has prompted the investigation; the second discusses the broad and specific context within which the study was conducted, followed by a description of the research objectives and research questions in the third section. The methodology employed in this study is outlined in section four. The significance and limitations of the study, as well as ethical issues, are described in three subsequent sections. The chapter concludes with the organisation of the study, definitions of the terms and a summary of the chapter.

1.1 Background to the Study

The literature on language teaching and second language acquisition has been largely driven by monolingual ideology which is underpinned by a common assumption that a second language (L2) is best taught and learned in the L2 only. Although this simple assumption is not empirically supported (Auerbach, 1993; Cummins, 2007, 2008; Skinner, 1985), it is still prevalent in language pedagogy (Cummins, 2007; Widdowson, 2003). Cook (2010, p.9) noted that the superiority and popularity of this approach "has remained largely immune from investigation until recently". This ideological orientation has been so influential that it has been translated into language policy in a number of language teaching institutions. For example, in the Hong Kong context, the Curriculum Development Council (2004, p.109) states that "in all English lessons...teachers should teach English through English". Macaro (2001) reported that the National Curriculum for Modern Foreign Languages in England and Wales strongly advocates that the foreign language should be the medium of instruction and the practice of teaching in the foreign language only indicates a good modern language course. The Korean Ministry of Education has required school English teachers to first use English frequently and then to increase the level to exclusive use (Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han, 2004). A similar explicit directive against the use of the L1 in instruction was previously imposed, for example, in secondary and tertiary teaching in China (Lin, 1996; Flowerdew, Li & Miller, 1998), in tertiary teaching in Taiwan (Tien, 2009) and in Malaysia (Ariffin & Husin, 2011; Martin, 2005) and in primary teaching in Brunei Darussalam and Botswana (Arthur & Martin, 2006; Martin, 1999). In China, there is an underlying

perception that teachers' use of Chinese indicates their lack of target language proficiency (Tian, 2013). Teachers' utilisation of learners' mother tongue is interpreted in a negative sense, being described as "smuggling the vernacular in the classroom" (Probyn, 2009, p.123), as a "skeleton in the cupboard" (Prodromou, 2002, p.5) or bad practice that should be "swept under the carpet" (Martin, 2005, p.88).

Regardless of the insistence by planners and policy makers that teachers use only the L2 or the pervasive sanctions against its use in the L2 classroom, the ideology clashes and the conflict between language ideology and classroom practice continues to be reported in the literature. For example, the teachers' use of code switching (CS) to the L1 in Liu et al.'s (2004) study was found to follow certain patterns and principles. The findings in the studies by Lin (1996) and Flowerdew et al. (1998) revealed a considerable tension between the policy of English-medium instruction and the classroom, where teachers continued to use the L1 for a variety of purposes. Lin (p.49) claimed that CS in Hong Kong schools is "the teachers' and students' local pragmatic response to the symbolic domination of English in Hong Kong, where many students with limited English capital struggle to acquire an English-medium education because of its socioeconomic value". In Brunei Darussalam and Botswana, the teachers' use of the L1 challenges the English-only policy imposed by government (Arthur & Martin, 2006). Similar tensions and conflicts between language ideology and classroom reality were reported in some other studies (Probyn, 2009; Wei & Wu, 2009).

The efficacy of using the L1 is so compelling that it continues even when policies mitigate against it. In Vietnam, there has been a dearth of research in this area, and it is not uncommon for teachers to have limited access to expert theories of practice and published research (Nguyen V.L., 2011). In the absence of research to guide them, teachers of English in Vietnam and the teachers at the research site mostly default to their own assumptions and intuitions about best practice for language instruction. In particular, their language choice for instruction appears to be based on their own intuitions and assumptions about what is appropriate, as neither language course books nor teacher guide books include any advice on whether or not to use the L1, and if it is to be used, how the L1 should be employed in their teaching.

Although currently there is no official English-only teaching policy in second language courses such as English for Business Communication, there has been a tendency for

university teachers to maximise the amount of time spent using the target language and there does appear to be a plan to introduce L2-only policy at this research site. This practice is predicated on the belief that increased L2 use will bolster student learning when the primary source of learners' exposure to English is limited to classroom. Teachers of English, and particularly those in content and language-integrated learning environments such as English for Business Communication face a dilemma with respect to the language to be used for instruction (L1 or L2) because the language they use is assumed to have an influence on student learning of both content and language knowledge.

Thus, the primary purpose of this study is to explore whether CS by the teachers to the L1 occurs in content and language-integrated teaching in Vietnam. If it does occur, the study also aims to investigate the reasons the teachers give for their CS behaviour and present the students' perspectives on their teachers' CS practices.

1.2 The Context

An understanding of the context is imperative if an understanding of teachers' and learners' cognitions and teacher instructional practices is needed. Borg (2009) and Dufva (2003) maintain that it is methodologically flawed for a research study on human cognition to be conducted without considering the social and cultural context in which they are situated. More specifically, it is important to understand the context in order to appropriately analyse teacher and learner beliefs. Kumaravedivelu (2001, p.543) asserted: "the experiences the participants bring to pedagogical settings are shaped by the broader social, economic, and political environment in which they have grown up". In a similar vein, Johnson (2006, p.236) wrote "the contexts within which they work are extremely influential in shaping how and why teachers do what they do". Borg (2006, p.275) claimed that "the social, institutional, instructional and physical settings in which teachers work have a major impact on their cognitions and practices". An understanding of the importance of context has also been found to be crucial for interpreting learners' perspectives (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008).

1.2.1 The broad context

This section describes the status of English in Vietnamese society, and particularly in education following the implementation of *Doi moi* in 1986 which witnessed a transition from a centrally planned to a free market-based economy initiated by comprehensive economic reform.

1.2.1.1 Status of the English language before Doi moi

Vietnam had been subjected to various colonising forces over the centuries, and the political climate exerted its influence on language policy. As Denham (1992, p.61) succinctly pointed out: "Vietnam's linguistic history reflects its political history". This is shown in the evolving foreign language policy of the country: under Chinese domination, Chinese was the official language; French colonisation led to the establishment of French as the major language in the education system (Do, 2006). During the war with France (1945-1954), along with French, Chinese was promoted as a result of military and civilian aid from China (Wright, 2002). However, the American war (1955-1975) divided Vietnam into two, the South and the North, respectively controlled by the Government of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam and the Republic of Vietnam. Such political conditions led to different foreign language policies being adopted in schools. The North promoted Russian and Chinese as a result of strong support from China, the Soviet Union and countries in the communist bloc. English and French were the main foreign languages in the South, due to political and economic relations with those countries (Do, 2006; Nguyen T.M.H, 2011). The end of American war in 1975 reunified Vietnam, and although other foreign languages were offered, Russian became the predominant foreign language in all levels of education as a result of the economic, political, and educational support of the former Soviet Union (Do, 2006; Wright, 2002) and Vietnam's economic isolation from the West, imposed by America due to Vietnam's involvement in the Cambodian war in 1979 (Hoang, 2010). As a result of Russian dominance, English teaching was paid scant attention (Nguyen & Crabbe, 1999; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2007), as evidenced by the limited number of students learning English across all education levels (Hoang, 2010).

1.2.1.2 Status of the English language after Doi moi

Doi moi encouraged economic, diplomatic and political relations with other countries in the West, paving the way for an influx of foreign investment to Vietnam. This

significant event, coupled with the collapse of the Communist bloc in the late 1980s (Denham, 1992), facilitated English's evolution as the dominant mode of communication for both business and education in Vietnam (Do, 2006; Fry, 2009).

The importance of English was further enhanced by a number of political events such as trade normalisation with America in 1995 and membership of organisations (such as ASEAN, APEC and WTO) where English is used as the *lingua franca* (Fry, 2009; Wright, 2002). At present, although other foreign languages are taught, English is considered the most important foreign language and, as a consequence, is taught across all levels of the Vietnamese education system (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2007; Nguyen T.M.H, 2011; Ton & Pham, 2010). In response to societal demands, English is currently a compulsory subject from Year 3 to Year 12 (Ministry of Education and Training, 2010). At the tertiary level, English has been mandatory for both undergraduates and graduates of all non-language majors (Hoang, 2010). Undergraduates and postgraduate students are also required to undertake either TOEIC and IELTS or TOEFL as one of the requirements for their graduation (Nguyen T.H., 2008; To, 2010).

English is widely used with ASEAN and APEC countries and it is the language for international business and trade. Therefore, English is widely perceived as the language necessary to increase a person's employment prospects in Vietnam (Wright, 2002). English language proficiency is a key recruitment criterion for work in joint venture and foreign-owned companies in the corporate sectors (Do, 2006) and in state-owned businesses (Nguyen & Le, 2011) as well as for job promotion (Nunan, 2003). In general, for many Vietnamese people, learning English enhances their graduate employability, which in turn guarantees their socioeconomic advancement.

1.2.1.3 English teaching and learning

The design of the English curriculum at primary and secondary schooling levels adheres to the regulations proclaimed by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET). As described in the curriculum, upon completing their English study at secondary schooling levels, it is anticipated that students will have achieved foundational English grammar, possess a specific number of vocabulary items, use English as a means of communication, and be aware of cross-cultural differences (Ministry of Education and Training, 2007). However, at the tertiary level, there is more flexibility and the English curriculum is designed at the discretion of each institution provided that it conforms to

the curriculum framework and time allocation mandated by the MOET (Hoang, 2010; Pham, 1999). It is common practice for most tertiary institutions to get experienced teaching staff to design courses, based on the interpretations of the framework, their professional experience and their understanding of the context (Duong, 2007). It is also common for tertiary institutions to use imported English textbooks written by native English speakers and to select the number of units to be covered in accordance with the time frame stated by the MOET (Pham, 1999). Although these textbooks provide teachers and students with updated knowledge, some aspects of the content are not appropriate to the local context (Nguyen D.T., 2007; Pham, 1999).

English teaching and learning in Vietnam has long been product-oriented and teacher-centred, focusing on the form of the language and the accuracy of reproduction rather than on communicative competence (Pham, 1999; Tran, 2013). Although a number of learner-centred and communicative approaches have been adopted, language teaching at the secondary level schooling still remains "grammar-focused, textbook-bound, and teacher-centred" (Le, 2007, p.174). At the tertiary level, despite concerted efforts to shift to a learner-centred approach, the learning and teaching approaches are quite similar to those at the secondary level (Pham, 1999; To, 2010; Tran, 2013).

According to Nguyen V.H. (2002, p.293), memorisation is the key characteristic of the learning styles of Vietnamese learners: "committing to memory was an absolute priority...Written exercises were only aimed at consolidating the memorising of the formulas of the book". Duong and Nguyen (2006) observed that memorisation is an integral characteristic of Vietnamese learners resulting from a direct consequence of learning in which the primary goal is to accumulate knowledge through the memorisation of ideas in order to pass grammar-based examinations. Consequently, Vietnamese learners of English view grammar as a crucial component of English learning (Bernat, 2004; Duong & Nguyen, 2006; Pham, 2007; Tomlinson & Dat, 2004), pay great attention to the mastery of linguistic details, prefer the use of translation as an essential language learning strategy and are likely to expect their teachers to "explain vocabulary, language points or sentence structures or to translate English texts into Vietnamese for comprehension" (Pham, 1999, p.192). Nguyen .T.H. (2002, p.4) described Vietnamese language learners as

...very traditional in their learning styles: they are quiet and attentive, good at memorizing and following directions, reluctant to participate (though knowing the answers), shy away from oral skills and from group interaction; they are meticulous in note-taking; they go 'by the book' and rely on pointed information.

Given that the educational system is "knowledge-based" and learners are expected to "return the desired behaviour" (Le, 1999, p.75), English tests tend to include only what teachers have covered during the course and focus on measuring learners' lexico-grammatical knowledge (Hoang, 2010). Thus, English instructional practices in Vietnam are strongly influenced by assessment and evaluation policies and practices (Le, 2008).

Exacerbating these educational constraints is a social environment in which English use is restricted because Vietnamese is the main language of day-to-day communication (Nguyen V.L., 2011; To, 2010). Thus, students do not have an immediate need to communicate in English outside the classroom. Although some mass media use English and English learning resources on the Internet have become readily available, most English is limited to classroom instruction (Nguyen V.L., 2011; To, 2010) and teachers are viewed as the primary source of the target language (Le, 1999). On this basis, the English learning environment has been described as "a cultural island" (Le, 1999, p.74). Other factors affecting English language teaching and learning at the tertiary level in Vietnam include large class size (Hoang, 2008) and low English entry levels of the majority students (Nguyen T.V., 2007).

1.2.1.4 Sociocultural factors

During the period of Chinese domination, Vietnam was influenced by Confucian moral philosophy, particularly reflected in respect for learning and the importance of morality in education (Pham & Fry, 2002). This still has a strong influence on culture and education (Nguyen, Terlouw, & Pilot, 2005; Pham & Fry, 2004). Teachers, scholars and mentors are treated with formal deference, both inside and outside the classroom (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010; Pham & Fry, 2004), and relationships between teachers and students are mostly formal and hierarchical (Nguyen & McInnis, 2002; Tran, 2013). Teachers are considered as keepers of knowledge (Le, 1999; Nguyen.T.H., 2002) and learners as the receivers (Giang, 2000), giving rise to a teacher-centred approach in education, including in English language teaching.

Vietnamese people choose certain terms of address in their daily speech which reflects these relationships (Ho, 2003). Specifically, the Vietnamese system of person reference includes nouns that are kinship and status terms, proper nouns and personal pronouns (Ho, 2003; Pham, 2001), of which common nouns are used more frequently: "the kinship and status terms can foreground clearly the hierarchical formality and solidarity stability of the involved relations" (Luong, 1987. p.50). Given the strict hierarchical relationship between teachers and students, students have to use the term "Teacher" when addressing their instructor (Pham, 2001). In contrast, the use of personal pronouns, particularly the addressee-addressor reference *mày/tao* [you/I] which can imply intimacy, the breakdown of formality and strong disrespect (Luong, 1987) is rarely, if ever, used in formal contexts such as the classroom (Ho, 2003).

1.2.2 The institutional context

The key factors relating to the specific context of this study are the general features of the research site, the training program of the English for Business Communication stream, the assessment policies for both teachers' work performance and student progress, and the textbooks used in Business English courses.

Tertiary education in Vietnam is stratified and consists of: specialised universities, multidisciplinary universities, open universities, public junior colleges, private junior colleges, private universities and international universities (Fry, 2009). As a private institution, Hoa Sen University (HSU) is monitored by the MOET and all its administrative and educational activities adhere to MOET guidelines.

Distinguishing itself from other state-funded and private universities, the institution in which this study was based maintains its teaching quality by a number of strategies: a credit-based system that allows its students to design their own study plan in line with prescribed core subjects and to select teachers and class time; relatively small class sizes of thirty students (in comparison with the standard class size between forty and sixty elsewhere in Vietnam) (Pham, 2007) and questionnaire-based student feedback, which provides students with opportunities to evaluate teacher performance. The student evaluations, however, have caused a backlash, as there is institutional pressure on teachers, whose professional effectiveness is partly judged by their students' feedback.

HSU is well-established and highly respected for the quality of its teaching, especially in relation to its content-based Business English courses. It uses a program that is highly regarded among job recruiters due to the quality of its "sandwich training model". According to this model, after completing learning for the first two semesters, the students are sent to work as interns for one semester and this practice is repeated when they complete the last semester of study.

At the time of data collection, the institution had no-specific policy regarding the use of English as the medium of instruction. Informal interviews with teachers showed, however, that, generally, they believed they were expected to adopt more English in their instruction, given their students' limited exposure to that language.

According to the institution website, the Faculty of Languages and Cultural Studies (FLC), where this study was conducted, offers Bachelor degrees in two fields: English Studies and Tourism and Hospitality Management. In order to meet their degree requirements, undergraduate students majoring in English Studies take courses both in general and professional education. The former focuses on political theory, natural and social sciences, and the latter provides students with foundation skills and in-depth knowledge of the English language. Following the completion of the general and professional education courses, students select one of four streams according to their interest: Translation-Interpreting, English Teaching Methods, Corporate Communication, or English for Business Communication. The stream which is selected by most of the English-major students is English for Business Communication as illustrated in the table below (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: Number of students in English Studies

Intake	Total number of students in English Studies	Number of students in English for Business Communication	Number of students in Interpreting -Translation & English Teaching Methods
2010-2014	110 (100%)	77 (70%)	33 (30%)
2011-2015	120 (100%)	84 (70%)	36 (30%)
2012-2016	120 (100%)	82 (68%)	38 (32%)

(Source: 2014 Statistics provided by FLC-HSU)

(Note: The statistics do not indicate the number of students undertaking the Corporate Communication stream, as this was introduced in academic year 2013-2014 after the data collection was completed).

Students in the English for Business Communication Stream undertake both compulsory and elective courses to deepen their specialised knowledge. The compulsory courses include English skills courses spanning the first two academic years to assist students to master the basic skills of English. Students undertake Business English courses from the second academic year and two Interpreting-Translation courses in their third year along with other specialised economic courses and English units. The general objectives of the study program in this stream are that graduates will be able to employ linguistic and cultural knowledge, English and professional skills, and business and administrative skills to meet the requirements of middle and senior management positions in areas of the Vietnamese economy which have international exposure.

There are five levels of the Business English course; namely Elementary Business English 1, 2, and 3 and Advanced Business English 1, and 2. As part of the course requirements, the students are required to register for all five levels, depending on their schedules. Each level demands three-hour contact sessions per week for thirteen weeks. The Business English classes are serviced by a cohort of eight tenured teachers and around sixteen visiting teachers (the number varies according to the number of the students registering for each level every semester).

Students' academic progress is measured on the basis of formal and on-going assessments. The on-going assessment allows teachers to design their own evaluation methods throughout the course, usually involving individual or group presentations or mini-projects pertinent to the business topics covered in each level. The formal assessment is administered by the Faculty, in the middle and at the end of every level. At the time of data collection for this study, both tests incorporated five components: business terms, listening, grammar, reading and writing, of which business terms accounted for 30 percent of the total score with the other components set respectively at 10, 15, 25, and 20 percent. A focus on testing student understanding of the business topics that have been discussed throughout the course is a common testing characteristic in the education system (Hoang, 2010).

In order to facilitate the achievement of the prescribed course objectives, a series of textbooks titled *Intelligent Business (Pre-Intermediate to Upper Intermediate)* and *Market Leader (Advanced)* are used. The *Intelligent Business* series, according to the

authors, is aimed at developing key communicative language for the business environment and expanding business knowledge. Key business terms are introduced via scenarios, followed by listening comprehension covering these business terms, and reading comprehension, focussed on the development of business terms and key business knowledge. The language section contains grammar revision exercises, supported by role-playing activities. The last section offers students opportunities to practise problem-solving skills through authentic business tasks. The *Market Leader* textbook shares a similar set of features.

1.3 Research Objectives and Research Questions

The primary objective of this study was to determine whether CS occurs in the teaching of Business English courses. If this CS behaviour is observed, the study examines the teachers' accounts of their practices and their students' perceptions of this behaviour. Therefore the research questions that this study addresses are as follows:

1. Do teachers use CS in content-based Business English undergraduate programs in Vietnam?
2. If the teachers do use CS, what rationale do they provide for their practices?
3. What are students' perceptions of the impact of their teachers' CS practices on their learning?

1.4 Research Methodology

To address these research questions, data were collected from teachers and students through three collection strategies. Non-participant observation was used to investigate teachers' CS practices, in particular the patterns and purposes of CS strategies. The use of stimulated recall interviews facilitated by the video data was used to garner the teachers' cognitive reflection, allowing the teachers to vocalise the motivations behind their CS behaviour in particular circumstances. What the students perceived to be the impact of their teachers' CS on their learning was captured through focus group interviews. The data generated were analysed by using a constant comparative approach and key issues to emerge from the data were identified.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study supplements the current understandings of bilingual discourse and code switching practices in content and language-integrated teaching in a context that has been under-investigated.

For Vietnamese L2 instruction, the results of the study have the potential to contribute to the development of language education policy. Specifically, empirical evidence will assist language policy makers in Vietnam in general and particularly the curriculum leaders at HSU to determine whether exclusive target language use for instruction or switching between students' mother tongue and the target language is most efficacious.

Pedagogically, findings from this study will provide teachers of English in Vietnam with evidence about the impact of and student perceptions about the use of the first language in L2 teaching and assist them to make choices about the use of CS strategies by identifying those strategies that are most likely to foster student learning. These understandings will also be a useful addition to teacher education programs.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

This study provides a snapshot of CS practices, the teachers' and the students' conceptualisation of this behaviour. The findings must be interpreted in light of several important limitations.

The first weakness of the study relates to the generalisability of the study. In view of the limited number of the participants and the single-institution context, this study is merely indicative of what typically happens in Business English courses. No attempts are made to generalise the findings of this study beyond the local institutional context. This study acknowledges that "the determination of generalisation [is] in the hands of the reader of a research study rather than in that of the writer" (Erickson, 1991, p.351). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 51), "transferability" or "comparability" is up to readers to decide for themselves: "whether there is a congruence, fit, or connection between one study context, in all its complexity, and their own context, rather than have the original researchers make that assumption for them". This point is also made by Graneheim and Lundman (2004).

The second limitation is related to methodology. As an ethical condition, all the teachers were conscious of the focus of the study which raised the likelihood that their CS behaviour would be altered in some way. Further, although every effort was made to arrange stimulated recall interviews with the teachers shortly following their recorded teaching sessions, the unavoidable time lapse may have affected their retrospective accounts of their CS practices. These *ex post facto* data are "always incomplete because they are collected after the act of teaching is finished" (Freeman, 1996, p.370, italics original). Repeated interviews following observations seemed to make some of the teachers lose interest, while others appeared to want to shorten their final interview session. The focus group interviews conducted with the students also had some weaknesses. Although the group size ranged from five to ten (as recommended in the literature), some more verbal students dominated the discussions. This may have compromised the representative nature of student views. In addition, sometimes, their discussions deviated from the topic, on some occasions – for example, instead of focussing on CS, they described their preferred teaching methodology. The question concerning the drawbacks of teacher CS raised in the interview with the students was not asked of teachers during their interviews, which might have compromised comparison between teachers' and students' beliefs on this aspect.

1.7 Ethical Issues and Data Storage

Before the study was conducted, ethics approval from Curtin University was sought and gained. Ethical principles for conducting this research were followed. All the participants' consent forms (Appendix 1), which clarified the purposes and methods of data gathering, how information they provided would be used and how their identities would be protected, were obtained. The participants were also informed in writing that their confidentiality was guaranteed and that they had a right to withdraw from the study at any time. All the participants were also offered the opportunity to further discuss the purposes of the study in person prior to their decision, if required.

Every effort was made to minimise the impact of the bias integral to the researcher's status as an insider: the research purposes were descriptive in nature rather than evaluative of the participants' practices and beliefs; opportunities for the participants to voice their viewpoints were maximised by using stimulated recall and focus group interviews which were guided by open-ended questions; transcriptions of the interviews

were sent to the participants for verification, amendment and confirmation prior to the commencement of data analysis; the participants' stance was retained by using their own words in reporting the findings. Aware that teachers may be confronted by issues of professional identity in telling stories about themselves and their teaching, two non-participant teachers at the research site were consulted about the proposed interview questions to identify sensitive issues prior to the data collection process.

The data storage adhered to the procedures set by the School of Education and Curtin University.

1.8 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into seven chapters. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 discusses the literature relevant to the research topic. The first part of the chapter profiles approaches to CS, the second part outlines the use of CS in language pedagogy and the third discusses teacher and student beliefs about CS.

Chapter 3 describes the research methodology, including the overarching research paradigm, research design, data collection strategies, and the procedures for analysing data. Issues of worthiness and credibility of the data are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapters 4 to 6 report on the findings pertaining to each research question.

Chapter 7 concludes the thesis, presenting a discussion of the findings, the implications of the study and suggestions for further research.

1.9 Definitions of Terms

This section provides definitions of some terms frequently used in this thesis.

Code switching (CS): the alternate use of the target language (in this case, English) and the native language (Vietnamese) that teachers and students share. Given this study examines CS from English to Vietnamese only, CS used throughout the study refers to this switching direction.

First language (L1): the language that both teachers and learners in this study share. In this study, the terms "first language" and "mother tongue" are synonymous and in both cases refer to Vietnamese.

Second language (L2): the language other than the learners' own (first/mother tongue) language. In this study, "second language" and "target language" are synonymous and refer to English.

Monolingual or intralingual teaching: teaching that uses only the second or target language.

Bilingual or crosslingual: teaching that uses or makes reference to learners' L1.

The CS patterns and their definitions emerged from the study itself are as follows:

- **Lexical CS:** the use of brief Vietnamese words.
- **Phrasal CS:** the use of Vietnamese phrases.
- **Sentence CS:** the use of Vietnamese sentences.
- **Mixed CS:** a combination of English and Vietnamese

1.10 Summary

This introductory chapter has described the importance of English both in the education system and in society in Vietnam. Contextual features that have the potential to impact on the participants of this study were presented: the strong emphasis placed on the mastery of English in language pedagogy and assessment policy and the objectives of the training program which aim to have students master English and basic knowledge in the business environment. Apart from contextual influences, instructional practices that are impacted by institutional factors such as assessment policy and evaluation of the teachers' professional effectiveness are also outlined. The research problem, research objectives and the research questions are defined.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter consists of three sections. The first section provides an overview of code switching (CS): its characteristics and a description of CS research from three perspectives. The second section outlines the role of the L1 in language pedagogy, presenting the arguments for and against monolingual instructional strategies. Recent trends that acknowledge the role of the L1 in L2 instruction and the value of CS to the L1 in L2 instruction are also discussed. The third section describes the nature of teacher and learner beliefs, followed by discussion about teacher perspectives on CS practices and learner perceptions of their teachers' CS behaviour.

2.1 Code Switching

2.1.1 Characteristics of code switching

Haugen (1972, as cited in Kamwangamalu, 2010) observed that when two or more languages come into contact, both languages are activated, and they are likely to interact with one another. This interaction leads to interlingual contagion, which results in phenomena such as CS, borrowing, code-mixing, and diglossia. This study, therefore, acknowledges the influence that two languages have on each other.

CS, a commonly observed phenomenon across bilingual communities, has been a central theme in bilingualism research. Originally, the CS phenomenon was perceived as a random process used by incompetent bilinguals (Duran, 1994; Hamers & Blanc, 2000; MacSwan, 2000). However, it is now seen as an integral feature of bilinguals' speech rather than a language deficit (Wei, 2000). Some regard CS as a valuable asset to bilingual speakers. For example, it is considered as an additional conversation management resource (Macaro, 2005, p.63), a privilege (Zentella, 1997), a highly skilled bilingual mode (Cook, 2001) or a creative strategy (Wei, 2011).

CS has a set of characteristics that are distinct from other bilingual-related phenomena, although the distinction is not always clear-cut (Bullock & Toribio, 2009). First, the mechanisms of CS and borrowing are quite different (Poplack, 1980). If a lexical item is syntactically or phonologically integrated into the base language or there is no integration at all, it is an incidence of CS. In contrast, if a lexical item shows phonological, morphological and syntactic integration, it is borrowing. Further, CS is a

typically characteristic feature of bilingual speakers, whereas borrowing can be found in a monolingual or bilingual speech in which borrowed words fill in perceived lexical gaps in the language they are using (Kamwangamalu, 2010).

Traditionally, the distinction between CS and code mixing (CM) was determined on the basis of where the alternation occurred. CM included all those cases where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence (Muysken, 2000). In the same vein, Bhatia and Richie (2009, p.593) referred to CM as "the mixing of various linguistic units primarily from two participating grammatical systems within a single sentence". In contrast, CS takes place between sentences (Ferguson, 2003; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Rubdy, 2007). However, distinguishing between CS and CM is not the focus of this study, and on this basis CS will be used as a cover term, for any switches between two languages, regardless of whether the switch is within or between sentences.

Diglossia is another bilingual phenomenon where two language varieties - the standard or the High and the nonstandard or the Low - are attached to different social functions, according to community norms. The High is reserved for formal situations, including use in the workplace, school and mass media, while the Low is common in informal contexts. It is the social constraints on diglossia that distinguishes it from CS, where it is the bilingual speaker who determines when, why and how to switch codes (Bullock & Toribio, 2009).

A recent term used in connection with CS in the literature is "translanguaging". According to García and Wei (2014, p. 22)

Translanguaging differs from the notion of code-switching in that it refers not simply to a shift or a shuttle between two languages, but to the speakers' construction and use of original and complex interrelated discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or another traditional definition of language, but that make up the speakers' complete language repertoire.

On this basis, the use of two languages is not seen as problematic, but rather as a way a speaker develops their language skills and constructs their identity. Whether or not this is the case in Vietnam, particularly in Business English classes, is the focus of this research.

2.1.2 Approaches to code switching

Research on CS has been conducted from a number of perspectives, including structural, sociolinguistic, and cognitive-pragmatic. CS research seen from a structural perspective examines the formal linguistic constraints on switching. Studies undertaken from a sociolinguistic perspective identify social factors related CS such as topics, participants, settings, etc. Accounts of bilingual language production are the focus of CS research from a cognitive-pragmatic perspective.

2.1.2.1 Structural approaches to code switching

Researchers working from a structural perspective have focused on the linguistic features of CS, particularly the universal syntactic constraints that govern it. For instance, based on Spanish-English data which share the same word order, Poplack (1980, p.585) proposed two constraints on CS. First, the Free Morpheme Constraint states that codes may be switched at any point in the discourse "provided that constituent is not a bound morpheme". In this way, CS does not occur within a word or between a free and a bound morpheme, as it leads to the imprecise formation of expressions such as "run-eando" (Bhatia & Richie, 2009), in which eando is a Spanish-bound morpheme. Second, the Equivalence Constraint states that CS may occur at any point where the two languages are structurally equivalent and "the juxtaposition of L1 and L2 does not violate a syntactic rule of either language" (Poplack, p.586). This implies that CS takes place when the structures of both languages are similar. Based on this, Poplack (1980) identified three types of CS: tag, inter-sentential and intra-sentential switching. Tag-like switching includes interjections, fillers and tags which require minimum grammatical knowledge of that language from the interlocutors. Inter-sentential switching occurs at a clause or sentence boundary, where each clause or sentence is in one language or another. Intra-sentential switching takes place within the clause or sentence.

Muysken (2000, p.13) argued that the constraints proposed by Poplack (1980) highlight the "importance of linear equivalence between the languages involved at the point of the switch". The two constraints were suggested to be universally valid for all language pairs (Sankoff & Poplack, 1981). However, the following contrasts were found to contravene the rules: Moroccan-Arabic (Bentahila & Davies, 1983), Italian-English (Belazi, Rubin & Toribio, 1994), mostly because of a difference in word order of the languages involved. Additionally, the Equivalence Constraint has been criticised for

overlooking the tight mapping of two languages (Bhatia & Richie, 2009), and because contact between two languages can lead to asymmetry (Boztepe, 2003).

Also working within a structural perspective, Myer-Scotton (1993) introduced the Matrix Language Frame Model (MLF) to predict the forms of CS utterances. In this model, the two languages involved in a CS utterance are the Matrix Language (ML) or the main language, and the Embedded Language (EL) or the other language with a lesser role. This model explicitly indicates that in a CS utterance, there is a recognisable base language and an asymmetrical relationship exists between the ML and EL. According to the morpheme frequency criterion, the ML is the speakers' mother tongue. However, this is problematic in those communities where it is unclear what the mother tongue is and what is the second language (Clyne, 1987, as cited in Ho, 2003). Clyne maintained that it is impractical to distinguish between a "base" or "matrix" language because some items are common in some language pairs. Indeed, the constraints reported in the literature are applied in specific language pairs, and universal constraints of CS have not yet been identified (Chan, 2009).

2.1.2.2 Sociolinguistic approaches to code switching

The sociolinguistic approach focuses on the social meaning of, and motivation to use, of CS. Gumperz (1982, p.95) described the "we-code" as the language one uses for informal activities and for interaction between in-group members to convey privacy, intimacy, and subjectivity, and the "they-code" switches are the language associated with out-group relations which creates distance and asserts authority. Sebba and Wootton (1998) disputed the distinction between the "we/they codes", arguing that it is not simple to attach particular social identities to one code only. The young Caribbean Londoners in their study used both London English and London Jamaican as the "we code" because "London Jamaican excluded outsiders" and was used in informal situations. London English was also found among family members for "intimate discussions" (p.264). The authors further argued that social identities are constantly changing, depending on contexts, and should be interpreted based on the manifestation of talk between interlocutors. The dichotomy of the "we/they-code" also breaks down in the South African context (Kamwangamalu, 1999). For example, speakers in Zulu, Afrikaans and Venda communities would use these languages as their "we-code", whereas English would exist as their "they-code". At the same time, however, English

was found to be employed among in-group members to display particular social identities (Kamwangamalu, 1999).

Equally influential as the "we/they code" construct, Gumperz (1982) differentiated two types of CS: situational switching and metaphorical switching. The former involves the social factors leading to CS, such as changes in participants or settings, and assumes a direct relationship between the social situation and appropriate code choice that bilinguals make to maintain appropriateness. The latter may be related to changes in topic emphasis rather than the social situation. Therefore, in this context it is the speaker's communicative intentionality that triggers CS (Wei, 1998).

The sociolinguistic perspective on CS holds that CS fulfils a number of purposes. Gumperz (1982) for example, identified six basic discourse functions that CS serves in conversation: quotation (where someone's utterance is reported as direct quotation), addressee specification (to direct the message to a particular person among the addressees), interjection (to serve as a sentence filler), reiteration (to repeat a message in another code for clarification), message qualification (to elaborate the preceding utterance) and personification or objectification (to imply a personal or objective tone).

However, these categorisations have been criticised for their failure to recognise the various discourse functions that exist in multilingual societies. Kamwangamalu (2010) argued that no speakers use a single register or style in the various domains or topics where they CS. Other researchers have also criticised Gumperz's classification of CS functions. According to Myers-Scotton (1993), this classification fails to cover the variety of domains, topics and situations that bilingual speakers encounter or to acknowledge that the nature of language is dynamic. Gumperz's classification does not truly reflect the outcomes of speakers' switches in a conversation (Boztepe, 2003) and the concept of a causal relationship in CS is impossible due to the unanticipated development of conversation (Auer, 1984). Auer contended that there is no linear connection between language choice and social context and, rather than listing the discourse functions of CS in conversation, he described two categories of CS: discourse-related CS and participant-related CS. Bilingual speakers employ participant-related CS to compensate for the interlocutor's lower language competence in one language or to accommodate the speaker's language preferences. Discourse-related CS, on the other hand, is deployed by bilingual speakers to contribute to the structural

organisation of the conversation by setting up a contrast in the language choice. The distinction, however, is not always clear cut (Auer, 1984; Wei & Milroy, 1994). In practice, turn-internal switches can be interpreted both as a discourse-function, such as for reiteration, and as participant-related because bilinguals take into consideration their interlocutors' language preference or competence (Wei & Milroy, 1994).

In an effort to address the overemphasis on external influences on language choice, the Markedness Model (MM) of CS established by Myers-Scotton (1993) promoted the speakers as the key agents - they choose their codes based on the perceived or desired relationships they have in place. Disputing the unstable correlations between codes and situations, the MM claims that any use of two or more codes in a conversation is indicative of the "right and obligation" (RO) perceived by speakers. An RO set is "an abstract concept, derived from situational factors, standing for the attitudes and expectations of participants toward one another" (p.85). The interrelationship between external factors, such as topics, settings and individual considerations, leads to language choice. Myers-Scotton argued that bilingual speakers possess an innate and internalised schema which assists them to associate a language choice with a specific interactional context. When bilinguals are in a conversation, it is assumed that, based on the RO of that exchange, they take into account social and interactional considerations in relation to their interlocutors and opt for an appropriate code choice, which can be expected (unmarked) or unexpected (marked).

Based on this, Myers-Scotton (1993) categorised three types of CS: CS as an unmarked choice, CS as marked choice, and CS as an exploratory choice. CS as an unmarked choice occurs when interlocutors expect the choice of code to signal solidarity and in-group identity; CS as a marked choice is the unexpected choice in the communicative exchange to signal social distance between interlocutors; and, CS as an exploratory choice occurs when speakers are unsure of what is expected or optimal. Thus, the speakers negotiate one code first and, depending on the negotiation outcome, they might negotiate another code until they reach the required balance of RO for that communicative exchange. Although this model focuses on individual choices and motivation, a thorough understanding of societal norms and evaluations is required to interpret the meaning of CS (Winford, 2003).

2.1.2.3 Cognitive-pragmatic approaches to code switching

Cognitive-pragmatic approaches attempt to account for bilingual language production. Kecskes (2006, p.257) posited a dual language model (DLM) which focused "on conceptualisation and the manner in which conceptualised knowledge is lexicalised or mapped onto linguistic forms (words, phrases, sentences, utterances) and grammatically formulated". DLM is built based on three components: the model of a dual language system proposed by Kecskes (1998) and Kecskes and Papp (2000); Levelt's (1989; 1995) proposed conceptualiser and the formulator; and, Grosjean's (1998) language mode theory (as cited in Kecskes, 2006, p.259).

Two main assumptions underpin DLM: first, in the bilingual memory, there exists a dual language system which has a common underlying conceptual base (CUCB) responsible for relating conceptual knowledge from the two languages, making them constantly available for production. The CUCB contains common concepts (which are dominant), culture-specific concepts, and synergic concepts. While common concepts are mapped to both cultures and languages, a specific sociocultural connotation is attached to culture-specific concepts. Synergic concepts are the result of conceptual blending which leads to groups of concepts and cannot be lexicalised either to the corresponding L1 or the corresponding L2. Thus, "synergic concepts are lexicalised in both languages, but may have a somewhat different sociocultural load in each language" (Kecskes & Horn, 2007, p.29); second, the two languages involved in CS co-operate in the bilingual production of utterances, limited by conceptual-pragmatic factors and linguistic constraints. These assumptions suggest that the primary cause of CS is conceptual-pragmatic.

Based on these two assumptions, Kecskes described CS as intentional, natural and motivated by speakers' linguistic awareness and communicative needs. Specifically, CS originates from a speaker's intention or the formulation of message starts in the CUCB. "From the CUCB, the message gets into the language channels where it gains its final form by mapping conceptual representations onto linguistic representations and comes to the surface in a language mode required by the interplay of context and the speaker's strategies" (2006, p.260).

The DLM is illustrated by Moyers's CS patterns (1998, as cited in Kecskes, 2006) which were identified along the lines of Muysken's (2000) CS classification: insertion,

alternation and congruent lexicalisation. A speaker inserts a word from Lx to utterances in Ly because, based on the speaker's conceptualisation, the word has no conceptual equivalent in Ly. Another type of insertion involves the reduplication in Ly of content terms in Lx because the speaker realises a conceptual equivalent between the terms in the two languages or alternatively recognises that those terms are common concepts. A speaker engages in alternations which involve segments or full sentences of the two languages because those segments or sentences are conceptualised in a given language to express the speaker's thought. Congruent lexicalisation involves the combination of items from the two languages into a shared grammatical structure as the items are perceived by the speaker to share a common conceptual domain.

In summary, CS is distinct from other bilingual-related phenomena, and different perspectives on CS have resulted in divergent research foci. The research foci of structural and sociolinguistic approaches do not reflect the aim of this study, as they aim to account for the universal linguistic constraints governing CS and the social factors relating to CS. Thus, a cognitive-pragmatic approach has been adopted in this study to account for CS patterns.

2.2 Second Language Pedagogy

2.2.1 L1 use in L2 instruction

There has been considerable debate in the literature about second language teaching and the merits of different approaches of language instruction. Of particular relevance to this study is the question of whether or not to allow CS to the L1 in language classes as a way to develop learners' L2. Advocates of monolingual instructional strategies believe that L2 instruction is best conducted only through the L2 (Direct Method), which means that "direct association between concepts and the new language" (Butzkamm, 2013, p.472), and that there is no place for translation between the L1 and L2 (Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2008; Skinner, 1985). This L2-only approach is underpinned by a number of theoretical arguments and assumptions.

To begin with, L2 learning is equated with the manner in which children learn their L1, labelled as "language equivalence" by Skinner (1985), that is, learning comes about through imitation and reinforcement, and through the establishment of habits that override interference from the learners' L1 (Widdowson, 2003; Yu, 2000). Not only does the L2-only approach highlight the importance of immersion of learners in a

language-rich environment, but it also explicitly requires that the language of instruction must be the L2 (Cook, 2001; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Yu, 2000). Second, this pro-L2 stance is underpinned by Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input hypothesis: when learners learn an L2, it is not necessary for them to know the linguistic elements of their own language, as learning an L2 means adding a bit more of the new language to their store of knowledge (Macaro, 2005). It also has its foundation in Swain's (1985) output hypothesis, which argues that it is a prerequisite for learners to speak and to write in the target language in order to master it, as the only way learners can learn an L2 efficiently is if they are forced to use it (Auerbach, 1995). It follows that successful L2 learning must remain separate from the use of the L1 (Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2005a, 2008). This argument is based on the assumption of co-ordinate bilingualism, which states that the two language systems are in distinct compartments of learners' minds (Weirein, 1953, as cited in Cook, 2001).

Advocates of the L2-only approach argue that the L2-only instruction ensures the provision of authentic and abundant communication deemed necessary for language learning (Ellis, 1984; Wong-Fillmore, 1985), and enables learners to think in the L2 to minimise interference from the L1 (Cummins, 2007, 2008). Others have added that through L2-only teaching, L2 learning is facilitated, and communicative competence is developed (Cummins & Swain, 1986; Macdonald, 1993; Simon, 2001). Krashen (1985), in particular, stressed the critical role of exposure to the target language, suggesting that the availability of the target language-rich environment is of "paramount importance to success in a new language"(p.13). As a corollary of this, the use of the L1, either by teachers or learners, will minimise the necessary exposure to the L2 (Macaro, 2005), or in Krashen's terms, reduce the amount of comprehensible input.

Reflecting the principles of the Direct Method is the common assumption that teachers provide the sole linguistic model for students to follow (Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1984; Lightbrown, 2001, Wong-Fillmore, 1985). On this basis, various language teaching methods have been developed in an endeavour to create a foreign language environment conducive to, and supportive of, language learning. For example, Berlitz Method, Suggestopaedia, the Natural and Audio-Lingual Approaches, and Total Physical Response, among others, endorse the exclusive use of the L2 and highlight the need to avoid CS to learners' L1 in order to minimise errors of omission, overgeneralisation and transfer (Ellis, 1997). Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which was prominent

in the 1980s and continues to be influential, foregrounds language learning without reference to the L1, emphasising the use of authentic communication, repetition and memorisation. The characteristics of this teaching approach include: drawing on realistic L2 texts whenever possible, ensuring abundant exposure to the L2 and emphasising the sole use of the L2 (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Task-based language teaching (TBLT), which emerged from CLT, also explicitly supports L2 use, with little mention of the L1 found in the TBLT literature, except for advice given on how to minimise its use (Cook, 2001). Content-based language teaching views language as a means of learning content and content as a resource for mastery of language (Stoller, 2002), and aims to provide learners with both language and subject matter knowledge without using the L1 to do so (Dupuy, 2000). A range of strategies is proposed for teachers to make content comprehensible but no reference is made to use of the L1 (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Overall, these different language teaching methods conceive of ideal instruction as using little, if any, of the L1 (Cook, 2001). Such monolingual principles have permeated a number of language learning environments, and appear to dominate most teaching approaches (Cummins, 2008), despite the fact that the "no L1 use" rule is rarely mentioned in teaching manuals (Cook, 2001). It appears that the prime focus of language learning and teaching is on preparing learners to communicate in monolingual environments only (Davies, 2003), and aims to assist learners to achieve the native-speaker proficiency (Hall & Cook, 2012).

Whilst this monolingual approach is widespread in practice, it is not grounded in theory and is considered by some as undesirable, unrealistic, and untenable (Auerbach, 1993, Cummins, 2007, 2008; Levine, 2011; Phillipson, 1992; Skinner, 1985). L1 avoidance, in effect, may be a hindrance to the speed, rate and route of L2 learning and inconsistent with psychological development (González-Davies, 2014). Contrary to the deep-seated belief in monolingual practices that focus on the emulation of child language acquisition, Cook (2001) asserted that there is a noticeable discrepancy between L2 and L1 acquisition, as the innate system guiding L1 acquisition only partly or imperfectly operates or disappears altogether in adult L2 learning. He maintains that learners' L1 plays a critical role in the L2 development. This view is supported by Bley-Vroman (1989, p.49) who argued that adults do not acquire the L2 in the same manner as children as "the domain-specific language acquisition system of children ceases to

operate in adults". He further argued that having mastered one language prior to their L2 learning also sets adult L2 learners apart from young learners.

Some commentators suggested that the L2-only approach is "linguistic imperialism", arising from colonial teaching experience (Katunich, 2006; Phillipson, 1992).

According to Phillipson, underpinning the support for this approach is the desire of major institutions in the English-speaking West to maintain their political power.

Auerbach (1993, p.12) pointed out that the monolingual approach "originates in the political agenda of the dominant groups, and serves to reinforce existing relations of power". Other scholars agree, arguing that the monolingual approach has a political dimension (Canagarajah, 1999; Cummins, 1989).

Phillipson (1992, p.211) maintains that the notion of maximum exposure is faulty reasoning, as "there is no correlation between quantity of L2 input, in an environment where the learners are exposed to L2 in the community, and academic success". Whilst it is now widely accepted that exposure to L2 is necessary, it is also acknowledged that exposure alone does not guarantee either learner engagement or successful language learning (Butzkamm, 1998; Cook, 2001; Ellis, 1994; Turnbull, 2001; Van Lier, 2000). Exposure on its own cannot guarantee learning, as the L2 input must be understood and internalised by learners (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009), and learners must be able to extract the patterns and extrapolate the rules necessary for L2 learning (Butzkamm, 2011; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009).

Several other scholars refute the notion of language compartmentalisation in L2 learners' minds. According to Cummins (2005a), empirical evidence indicates that a bilingual's two languages are not kept apart. Stern (1992, p.282) observed "the L1-L2 connection is an indisputable fact of life", and Cook (2005, p.7) argued that "total separation is impossible since both languages are in the same mind".

Cook (1991) proposed the multicompetence concept - the knowledge of more than one language in a bilingual's mind and the bidirectional influence of the two languages results in a unique competence which is not the same as that of a monolingual. Hence, he argued that learners do not learn another language with an empty mind, but two or more languages are present in the same mind (Cook, 2001, 2008).

Although the goal to help learners acquire native-speaker proficiency prevails in second language teaching, it has been posited that L2 learners can never become monolingual native speakers (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999; Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2005). Levine (2011, p.33) stated that "most or even all learners will never achieve the native speaker norms (or even near native speaker norms) that we [language teachers and second language acquisition scholars] demonstrate and carefully lay out for them". Some even argue that the target of native-speaker competence in L2 teaching is unrealistic, counter-productive (Fishman, 1976) and fundamentally misconceived (Kachru, 1994). Thus, the aim of SLA should be bilingualism (Kramsch, 1995; Sridhar, 1994; Widdowson, 2003), and a composite pragmatic model that "recognises that a bilingual acquires as much competence in the two (or more) languages as is needed and that all the languages together serve the full range of communicative needs" (Sridhar, 1994, p.802). On this basis, the true sign of bilingualism is both "the possession of two languages" and "the ability to jump easily from one to the other" (Dodson, 1967, p.90, as cited in Stern, 1992, p.282).

Based on the multicompetence concept, Cook (2002) suggested that L2 learners should be treated as a distinct type of learner in their own right: they will use the L2 differently from native speakers, have different knowledge of the L2 from that of native speakers, and should not pursue the aim of native-speaker proficiency. The aim of language instruction should be producing proficient L2 users, achieved by "incorporating goals based on L2 users in the outside world, bringing L2 user situations and roles into the classroom, deliberating using the students' L1 in teaching activities" (Cook, 1999, p.185).

The literature has documented that the teaching context should be taken into consideration for pedagogical decision-making in general (Bax, 2003; Kramsch, 2009; Tudor, 2001), and particularly for the incorporation of the L1 in L2 instruction (Auerbach, 1994; Lucas & Katz, 1994; Stern, 1992). Auerbach (1994) argued that contexts are a key factor when determining when it is, and is not productive, to use the L1. More specifically, Stern (1992) proposed four factors to be considered when implementing an intralingual or crosslingual strategy: commitment by learners to particular learning goals (crosslingual instructional strategies should be an important part of language instruction if translation-interpreting skills are a goal; in contrast, intralingual strategies will dominate, if the learning goal is communicative proficiency);

learners' previous learning experience in the L2; the context of the learning program; and, teachers' capability. These factors were also echoed in Lucas and Katz's (1994) discussions about the L1 in L2 instruction.

2.2.2 Acknowledging the use of the L1

In recent years, there has been a call for the underlying principles of the Direct Method to be revisited and reconceptualised (Butzkamm, 2011; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2007, 2008; González-Davies, 2014; Hall & Cook, 2012; Jenkins, 2010; Widdowson, 2003). However, the argument put forward by most is not a call for a return to the grammar-translation method which favours the memorisation of grammatical structures and word-for-word translation of decontextualised sentences. Neither is it a call to abandon intralingual instructional strategies (Stern, 1992), nor to ignore the crucial role that monolingual communicative activities play in language teaching and learning (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Rather than assuming that the monolingual instructional orientation is superior and bilingual strategies are banned at all costs (Cummins, 2005b), the call is for language pedagogy to explore the interplay between monolingual and bilingual strategies, to acknowledge the role of the L1 and translation in L2 teaching, and to recognise that L2 teaching and learning should be complemented by bilingual strategies (Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2005b; González-Davies, 2014; Stern, 1992; Widdowson, 2003). The call is also for the development of intercultural communicative competence (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999; Kramsch, 2002, 2006) and translingual and transcultural competence (Modern Language Association, 2007).

From a bilingual or plurilingual perspective, language education needs to recognise

...the fact that as an individual person's experience of language in its cultural contexts expands, from the language of the home to that of society at large and then to the languages of other peoples... he or she does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact (Council of Europe, 2001, p.13).

The literature supporting the use of the L1 and translation in L2 pedagogy includes general theories of learning and bilingualisation process, cognitive, sociocultural and sociolinguistic approaches.

2.2.2.1 General theories of learning and bilingualisation

Some scholars advocate the use of bilingual instructional strategies because they align with general learning theories and the bilingualisation process in which the L1 plays a crucial role (Cummins, 2008; Skinner, 1985; Widdowson, 2003). Skinner's (1985) support for bilingual instructional strategies is based on general learning theories put forward by Piaget, Vygotsky and Cummins. With regard to Piaget's assertion of learners' developmental stages, Skinner (1985, p.374) posited that the use of the L1 in L2 instruction secures "students' concept development to continue to grow in tune with the child's natural developmental stages". When the L2-only approach is adopted, "learners are forced by the method itself to function at the conceptual level far below their actual cognitive state in the L1". Relating the L2-only instruction approach to the work of Vygotsky which dictates that meaning is constructed "from the unity of 'Thought' and 'Word', Skinner claimed the learner's relatively limited words in the L2 "can only connect a limited number of thoughts to those words"; this affects both immediate and future learning, as concept development is restricted. Cummins' argument is that it is not theoretically sound to assume that L2 learners whose language proficiency is low will rely only on contextual clues for meaning processing. On the basis of such arguments, Skinner (1985) described an alternative approach to L2 instruction involving the use of the L1 to connect learners' thoughts with words and to ensure cognitive transfer of concepts from the L1 to L2, thereby accelerating and enhancing L2 development. This approach also promotes connections between the L2 and prior knowledge and ideas already developed in the L1. In a similar way, others also placed an emphasis on the use of the L1 for connection with prior knowledge based on the fundamental principle of general learning (Cummins, 2008; Lucas & Katz, 1994; Van Lier, 1995). Donovan and Bransford's (2005, p.4) position that "new understandings are constructed on a foundation of existing understandings and experiences" and that learners' pre-existing knowledge is "encoded in their L1" lead Cummins (2008, p.231) to argue that it is important to employ the L1 in L2 instruction to engage learners' prior knowledge. Van Lier (1995, p.39) also showed support for

connecting "the known (L1) to the new (L2)" on the ground that "learning is a process of relating the new to the known, and language learning is no exception".

A language pedagogy that makes explicit references to learners' L1 is advantageous in the bilingualisation process, as it is natural that learners "draw on the language they know as a resource for learning the language they do not"; thus, it is recommended that explicit reference to the L1 should be made to assist learners to render the input comprehensible and meaningful (Widdowson, 2003, p.159). This argument is also put forward by Stern (1992), who maintained that L2 learners always set out from their L1. Corder (1992) asserted that there is no escaping the fact that L2 learners already have a language system available when they learn an L2 and it is inconceivable that knowledge of the existing language would not play a part - it is "predominantly heuristic and facilitatory" in L2 learners' processes of discovery and creation (p.25).

Cummins (2008) proposed that background knowledge can be built through the L1 where necessary to enable learners to operate at a higher level in their L2 and to ensure L2 learning efficacy. Although Krashen highlighted the paramount importance of the natural environment in second language acquisition, he asserted that "general knowledge of the world and subject matter knowledge" learners acquired in the L1 make the input they receive in the L2 more comprehensible (1996, p.3). Jenkins (2010, p.459) concurred, stating that the L1 provides learners with the "basis necessary to build solid foundations". Ellis (1985, p.40) observed that "the L1 is a resource of knowledge which learners will use both consciously and subconsciously to help them sift the L2 data in the input and to perform at best as they can in the L2". Cummins (2007, p.238) wrote "...when students' L1 is invoked as a cognitive and linguistic resource ... it can function as a stepping stone to scaffold more accomplished performance in the L2".

L1 explanations and translation ensure precision of meaning, bring out differences between easily confused language items, and are more effective for meaning retention (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Piasecka (1988) and Hopkins (1988) claim that the use of the L1 enables learners to avoid false assumptions and analogies and acquire awareness of the conceptual and cultural differences between the two languages, which creates an authentic interactive teaching mode using both the L1 and L2 (Cook, 2005).

2.2.2.2 The cognitive processing perspective

The cognitive processing perspective holds that the L1 acts as a bridge for L2 meaning processing and for cross-language transfer. Macaro (2009, p.37) stated that there are essential connections between the L1 and L2 that facilitates meaning processing; thus, "to ignore L1 during the process of L2 learning is to ignore an essential tool at the learners' disposal". Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) proposed a common conceptual base mediating semantic processes in bilingual brains; therefore, it is crucial to use the L1 as a scaffolding mechanism for elucidating, clarifying meaning and facilitating conceptual understanding in the L2. The L1-L2 connection in bilinguals minds is exemplified by Kecskes and Papp's (2000, p.64) view about the way adult learners acquire new words in the L2: "they will relate a word in the FL to its translation equivalent in the L1...because the conceptual system of the learner is L1 based, and the right concept can be reached only through a word that denotes the concept in the L1". For learners in the early stage of L2 development, the conceptual base in the L2 is usually not developed enough to function as a channel through which knowledge and skills may be fed - words learned in the L2 are connected to L1 concepts through their L1 equivalents. The strong conceptual connections between L1 translation equivalents and the concepts they represent are also highlighted in the revised hierarchical model by Kroll and Stewart (1994): L2 learners are likely to process the meaning of L2 vocabulary by making links to their L1 translation equivalents, as they have already developed strong links between a concept and its L1 word. Learners are less likely to rely on this route for meaning processing when they achieve higher levels of proficiency.

Aside from functioning as a bridge for L2 meaning processing, Macaro (2005) contended that the use of the L1 and immediate translations from the L2 to L1 lightens the cognitive load for learners, and helps counter the constraints imposed by working memory limitations. Thus, a switch to the L1 can free up "working memory to work on the meaning of larger chunks of input" (p.74).

Cummins'(1991) interdependence hypothesis across languages suggests that learners have one integrated source of thought for both languages and conceptual knowledge and literacy skills are transferrable from one language to the other. According to this hypothesis, instruction in the L1 aids proficiency in the L2 and that proficiency in the L1 transfers to the L2 provided there is abundant exposure to, and adequate motivation

for L2 learning. Further, Cummins (2005b) indicated that transfer will involve cognitive, linguistic and conceptual elements, although the extent of transfer will vary between similar and dissimilar languages. His interdependence hypothesis implies that language teachers should actively teach for cross-language transfer and develop language awareness by employing bilingual instructional strategies.

2.2.2.3 The sociocultural approach

Viewed from a sociocultural perspective, the L1 in learners' collaborative speech serves as a cognitive tool through which learning is scaffolded. Three important functions have been identified in a number of studies: CS to the L1 by learners provides scaffolding, establishes and maintains relationships, and vocalises one's inner speech.

A substantial body of work on learners' collaborative interactions, particularly among L2 learners sharing an L1 background, but with low level of L2 proficiency, found that the L1 serves as a complimentary tool that learners deploy to provide each other with some level of support in their L2 learning. While undertaking L2 collaborative activities, learners used the L1 to focus their attention on and negotiate target linguistic forms and establish effective task management strategies, which helped them understand and complete tasks (Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). These findings were echoed in Anton and DiCamilla's (1999) investigation which found that the L1 was used by the learners to provide each other with assistance, evidenced by them negotiating and evaluating target language knowledge to help them understand the meaning of the text and complete the tasks. Similar conclusions were reached by Villamil and De Guereo (1996, p.60), who maintained that "the L1 is an essential tool for making meaning of text, retrieving language from memory, exploring and expanding content, guiding actions through the task and maintaining dialogue". Similarly, learners in Storch and Aldosari's (2010) study used the L1 to translate the meanings of L2 vocabulary for themselves.

Further, while attempting to accomplish collaborative tasks, learners switch to their L1 to initiate and sustain interactions with their partners, suggesting the L1 has a role to play in promoting relationships between learners (Anton & DiCamilla, 1999). Other studies found that learners used the L1 for off-task comments and disagreement management, thereby enhancing their personal interactions (Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Thoms, Liao & Szustak, 2005). Brooks and Donato's study

(1994) also reported that by using the L1 in problem-solving activities, beginner learners of Spanish negotiated meaning and established a shared understanding of the task. They also observed that the use of the L1 by learners is "a normal psycholinguistic process that facilitates L2 production and allows learners both to initiate and sustain verbal interaction with one another" (p.268).

Learners working in collaborative interactions use the L1 to externalise their thoughts, which is essential in the L2 learning processes (Centeno-Cortés & Jiménez-Jiménez, 2004). For example, the learners in Anton and DiCamilla's (1999) study used the L1 for self-evaluating their L2 production, and for regulating their thinking process during cognitively challenging tasks. Confronted by challenging problem-solving tasks, the learners in Centeno-Cortés and Jiménez-Jiménez (2004) shifted into the L1 as part of their reasoning process. These findings are also supported by de Guerrero (2005) who asserts that the L1 plays a cognitive role in the form of an inner voice as learners' silent speech occurs in the L1, and that this facilitates thinking and learning processes.

2.2.2.4 The sociolinguistic perspective

From a sociolinguistic perspective, CS to the L1 allows learners to communicate and negotiate their bilingual identities. Collingham (1988) and Piasecka (1988) argued that an individual's sense of identity is inseparable to their mother tongue. The findings in Ellwood's (2008) study revealed that the learners used the L1 to express their identities in terms of classroom alignment and classroom resistance. When these learners were required to perform some class tasks that were beyond their current capabilities, they used CS to comprehend and complete the task, demonstrating their endeavour "to align both with the task and the role of good students in order to avoid any loss of face" (p.544). Ellwood's study also reported examples of learners using the L1 to resist a "good student identity" and to constitute "criticism of some aspects of the classroom activity" (p.545). When asked to engage in baffling and unhelpful class tasks, they reverted to their L1 as a way to index their discontent and tedium with their peers. In doing so, they did not identify themselves as capable learners, and this was verified in a subsequent interview. From a pedagogical perspective, attending to learners' identity is necessary if the teacher is to foster student engagement and allow students to voice their concerns about tasks and activities as argued by Ellwood. She maintained that CS in this regard is also a form of feedback that teachers can use to evaluate their teaching practices, teaching materials and class activities.

Other studies undertaken from this perspective have revealed how bilingual learners draw on CS to construct their bilingual identity. For example, by relying on CS, learners are able to express their desire to be seen as proficient speakers of a given language and to ally themselves with other learners (Fitts, 2006; Fuller, 2007, 2009). Some learners who could speak German and English fluently switched back and forth between the two languages to get their class work done and concurrently construct their bilingual identity (Fuller, 2009). Other learners in German-English programs were found to repeatedly use more German than their peers in some exchanges, demonstrating their effort to prove their proficiency in German and to claim their membership with the German-dominant groups (Fuller, 2009). Likewise, one student in Fuller's (2007) study fluently switched between Spanish and English with a Spanish-dominant student and then an English-dominant education assistant. Fuller (2007) contended that this CS practice contributed to the identity construction of this student as a proficient bilingual. Some English students engaged in Spanish spoken and written discourse were observed to use CS to prove themselves in response to being excluded by their Spanish-speaking peers because of their assumption that their proficiency level was not sufficient (Fitts, 2006). Fuller (2009, p.130) argued that CS should be considered "as part of language acquisition" for language learners, as switching to the L1 enables learners to associate with their peers, while concurrently developing a new identity when switching to the L2. Similarly, Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2005) proposed that CS allows the learners to communicate their emerging bilingual identity, making them more comfortable with the L2 and, thus making L2 learning practical and achievable.

In summary, the use of the L1 does play a role in SLA. Excluding the L1 from language teaching is counter to the principles of learning, goes against the bilingualisation process, and deprives learners of a beneficial resource for their language learning and identity construction.

2.2.3 Teacher code switching

The literature on teacher CS in L2 instruction has documented teacher CS patterns, contexts in which teacher CS predominates, suggestions for integrating CS into L2 instruction, and the relationship between teacher CS and student learning outcomes.

Grosjean (1982) argued that CS can occur at a word, phrase, or sentence boundary. Teacher CS patterns in Polio and Duff's (1994) investigation into university FL

classrooms with English-speaking learners ranged from single words or phrases to a sequence of utterances in the teachers' otherwise L2 discourse. Among the three CS patterns identified by Martin (1996) in history and science classes in which English was used as the language of instruction, the use of one word glosses was especially common in comparison with switches within a sentence and among sentences. Providing L1 equivalents following target L2 words was a pervasive feature of classroom practice in studies by Arthur and Martin (2006), Guo (2007) and Macaro (2001). In primary science classes, Canagarajah (1995) identified four CS patterns: reformulation of statements across the two languages; L1 phrases or clauses inside an L2 utterance; L1 single lexical items in an L2 utterance and the use of L1 particles, discourse makers and backchannelling cues.

A number of studies have revealed a degree of similarity regarding the purposes claimed for teacher CS: facilitating curriculum access, classroom management discourse, and fostering interpersonal relations (Ferguson, 2003; Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Lin, 1996).

CS facilitating curriculum access describes the role of CS by the teacher in assisting learners to understand the subject matter of the lesson. Teachers in different content-based lessons used equivalents in the L1 to provide the meaning of content terms or to explain related disciplinary concepts (Arthur & Martin, 2006; Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher, 2009; Lin, 1996; Mafela, 2009; Martin, 1996; Probyn, 2009). Teachers also used the L1 to reformulate text content (Arthur & Martin, 2006; Uys & van Dulm, 2011), drew on the L1 to provide topic background information first introduced in the L2 (Lin, 1996; Probyn, 2009; Setati, 2005).

At the same time teacher CS appears to play a role in building target linguistic knowledge in language classes. In an investigation involving two teachers of university French, White and Storch (2012) found that CS served a variety of functions: constructing grammatical rules, translating target vocabulary and discussing cultural issues. Liu et al. (2004) reported that the teachers in South Korean high schools used the L1 when explaining unknown vocabulary and grammar and providing cultural information, although English only was mandated. Tien's (2009) examination of the use of CS in two first-year English university classes in Taiwan also found that the teachers switched to Mandarin to explain target linguistic forms and to bridge cultural gaps.

Similarly, Polio and Duff's (1994) study involving six university foreign language teachers found that all the teachers used either a grammatical term or a sequence of sentences in the learners' L1 when explaining L2 grammatical structures and that they reverted to the L1 to translate unfamiliar vocabulary. Similar findings were reported in other studies (de la Campa & Nadaji, 2009; Gauci & Grima, 2013; Grim, 2010; Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2001; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Simon, 2001). The findings of these studies indicate that there is a difference in the priority teachers place on their use of CS in language compared to content-based classes. It seems that teachers pay more attention to aspects of target language in the former, whilst teachers take more heed of content knowledge in the latter.

CS used by teachers also functions as a resource for classroom management - a recurring theme in both content-based and language classes. Ferguson (2003) and Lin (1996) argued that when teachers switch to the L1 for some "off-lesson" concerns, they are contextualising a shift in frame (Goffman, 1974, as cited in Ferguson, 2003, p.42). In effect, CS was found in teacher discourse for class management, such as giving procedural instructions, checking learner comprehension, maintaining learner attention, and dealing with classroom issues (Canagarajah, 1995; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Lin, 1996; Liu et al, 2004; Macaro, 2001; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Uys & van Dulm, 2011).

CS used by teachers to foster relationships with students is also found in both content-based and language classes. For example, teachers used brief statements in the L1 to offer encouragement, give praise or convey compliments to students, as "compliments in English were fairly routine and matter of fact" (Canagarajah, 1995, p.182), but those in the L1 have added force (Adendorff, 1996; Canagarajah, 1995; Lin, 1996). Lin (1996) proposed that such statements in the L1 are more effective because, as a member of the same cultural community, CS affirms the shared cultural norms and values, thereby further developing rapport between the teacher and students. Polio and Duff (1994) also claimed that by switching to the L1 teachers can show concern for, or joke with, the students and thus foreground their role as empathetic peers. CS used by teachers for such social purposes has been found in a number of other studies (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Gauci & Grima, 2013; Grim, 2010; Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Nagy & Robertson, 2009; Setati, 2005; Tien, 2009; Uys & van Dulm, 2011).

In a single case study exploring one Vietnamese university EFL teacher's CS practices and the motivations behind these practices, Le (2013) found various, but similar, functions to the results emerging from the studies discussed above. In particular, the teacher in Le's study used Vietnamese following his explanations in English to explain unfamiliar vocabulary and target linguistic structures. This teacher also used Vietnamese for comprehension checks and classroom management.

Given the advantages of CS, some scholars have put forward a number of guidelines in order to assist teachers to use the L1 strategically. Littlewood and Yu (2011), for instance, proposed a framework in which CS to the L1 can be used in the following circumstances: to clarify the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary, structures or utterances for the achievement of language learning goals; to create connection between the L1 and the L2; to build affective and interpersonal support; and for classroom management purposes. In a similar manner, Swain, Kirkpatrick and Cummins (2011) described three features of judicious use of the L1 for the scaffolding of L2 learning; namely, building from the known, providing translations for difficult grammar and vocabulary, and using cross-linguistic comparison.

Cook (2001, p.416) suggested four factors that need to be considered when using the L1: efficiency, learning, naturalness and external relevance, although the boundary of these factors is not clear-cut (the use of the L1 for conveying the meaning of unknown vocabulary and sentences, for explaining grammatical structures and for organising class tasks is an efficient and natural way to facilitate student understanding and learning; teachers are to "treat students as real selves" when socialising with students in their L1; and it is considered to be of external relevance if the complementary use of the L1 helps learners master specific L2 uses that they might need beyond the classroom). Macaro (2005, p.79) suggested teachers combine modification techniques, such as repetition, paraphrasing, and CS for teaching L2 lexical items as a means of "activating the maximum number of connections and reinforcing them for future recall".

However, support for use of the L1 does not mean that unlimited use of the L1 is endorsed. Cook (2001) cautioned that although the L1 is useful in certain situations, it is recommended that L2 should be mainly used. Turnbull (2001) warned against excessive use, encouraging teachers to use mainly the L2, particularly in contexts in which learners have limited exposure to the L2. Harbord (1992) also suggested that teachers

should be mindful of extensive use of the L1, particularly encouraging teacher-student communication and rapport in the L2. Atkinson (1987) pointed out that overuse can lead to learners feeling that they have not understood a new item until it is translated. According to MacDonald (1993), excessive use of the L1 might reduce student motivation, since they will have no pressing need to understand the teacher's L2 talk.

A few studies have documented how teacher CS can be associated with improved learning outcomes and have identified optimal ways for CS to be included in language pedagogy. Kaneko (1992) related teacher CS with what the Japanese students in his study claimed that they had learned. These students found teacher CS beneficial for vocabulary and grammar acquisition, but they perceived that the more the L1 was used, the less progress they made with pronunciation. Adopting an experimental design that used brief lexically-related switches, Tian and Macaro (2012) found a positive effect on vocabulary acquisition by university students: those who received L1 equivalents for lexical items had higher retention scores than the students provided with definitions and paraphrases entirely in the L2 (these retention scores diminished in the longer term). Lee and Macaro's (2013) study sought to examine whether English-only instruction or teacher CS was differentially beneficial to young and adult learners for vocabulary learning and retention. Their findings indicated that CS instruction resulted in better vocabulary acquisition and retention for young learners; for the adult learners CS instruction was more effective than English-only instruction for vocabulary acquisition in terms of immediate recall, but not for retention. Other studies reported that teacher CS bolstered learners' production in the L2 (Macaro, 2001; Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005). Learners were able to respond to their teachers' questions in the L2 after their teachers deployed CS to make their discourse more comprehensible by modifying and simplifying their linguistic forms and pedagogical focuses. Celik (2003) found that learners included some of the target lexical items in their L2 output that were introduced by teacher CS in a storytelling session. Even though spelling errors occurred in learners' writing production, Celik asserted that selectively using L1 words in teaching L2 vocabulary neither inhibits L2 production nor negatively affects L2 vocabulary acquisition.

2.3 Teacher and Learner Beliefs

2.3.1 Nature of teacher and learner beliefs

Barcelos asserted that beliefs are not only a cognitive concept but exist within one's experience which involves "the interaction, adaption, and adjustment of individuals to the environment", based on Dewey's (1938) philosophy (as cited in Barcelos, 2003, p.174). According to Barcelos' interpretation, fundamental to the construction of an individual's experience in a Deweyan sense are two principles: the principle of continuity and the principle of interaction. The former refers to "the connection between past and future experiences. Everything that we experience takes up something from the past and modifies the quality of future experiences" (p.174). The latter is the interaction between an individual and others and the environment; thus, in interacting with others and with the environment, an individual's beliefs are shaped. Clancey (1997, p.1) claimed that "every human thought and action is adapted to the environment, that is, situated, because what people perceive, how they conceive of their activity, and what they physically do develop together". This position is also discussed by Dufva (2003, p.134) who proposed that

...human cognition is best understood as a situated phenomenon...Situatenedness refers to the assumption that cognition occurs in time and space and that this spatio-temporal context not only has an impact on cognitive functions but is essentially present in the process of cognising itself. Since cognitive operations develop and occur in a certain physical and social environment, they also bear the mark of that environment. Whatever individuals believe is a consequence of the series of interactions they have been involved in and discourses they have been exposed to.

Thus, this study acknowledges that an individual's beliefs are formulated and continue to evolve through the experiences and the specific and broad contexts of which they are a part.

2.3.1.1 Teacher beliefs

Pajares (1992) claimed that teacher beliefs are a messy construct. This construct has been termed differently: "beliefs, attitudes and knowledge (Woods, 1996); "teachers' pedagogical systems" (Borg, 1998); "teachers' maxims" (Richards, 1998); "teachers' pedagogic principles" (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite, 2001). Borg's (2006)

review showed sixteen different labels to describe this mental construct. The difference between the labels appears to centre on the distinction between beliefs and knowledge. According to Pajares (1992, p.313), "belief is based on evaluation and judgment; knowledge is based on objective fact". Ennis (1994), Ernest (1989), and Nespor (1987) all argued that knowledge is often defined as factual information whilst beliefs are more personal and experiential in nature and appear to influence what and how knowledge will be used. Beliefs are more personal and subjective than knowledge, and an individual's beliefs affect the way their knowledge will be used (Nespor, 1987).

In this study, teachers' beliefs are defined as "the information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom" (Richards, 1998, p.66). They function as a guide to their thought and behaviour (Borg, 2001; Pajares, 1992) and exert considerable influence on the decisions teachers make about classroom practices (Johnson, 1994; Pajares, 1992; Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Turner, Christensen & Meyer, 2009). A substantial body of research in mainstream education and language teaching and learning suggests that teachers' beliefs are generated by a cluster of factors, including their prior language learning experience, their accumulated professional experience, their professional education and the institutional and social contexts in which they work.

The literature has documented that the way pre-service, novice and experienced teachers adopt or avoid particular teaching strategies is informed by their prior learning experience, both positive and negative (Bailey et al., 1996; Borg, 2003; Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite, 1998; Ellis, 2006; Farewell, 1999; Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1994; Macaro, 2001; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Numrich, 1996; Richards & Pennington, 1998). For example, Bailey et al. (1996), Farewell (1999), Golombek (1998), Johnson (1994), Numrich (1996) provided evidence of the impact of prior learning experience on pre-service teacher beliefs, and hence their instructional practices. Memories of the instruction they encountered as learners may act as a *de facto* guide when they become teachers themselves (Freeman, 1992, as cited in Borg, 2003). Studies of experienced teachers have also found that teachers' prior learning experiences are a significant influence on their beliefs and instructional decisions (Eisentein-Ebsworth & Schweers, 1997; Woods, 1996). One teacher in Macaro's (2001, p. 543) study explicitly indicated that her belief in the value of L1 in L2 pedagogy derived from

her own learning experience: "I grew up doing that... the school used to speak like that". This finding is echoed in McMillan and Turnbull's (2009) study which found that one teacher stated his support for CS in teaching developed as a result of his positive exposure to this practice as a learner. In contrast, Ellis (2006) reported that one teacher viewed CS as a strategic and pragmatic tool in teaching, although this teacher experienced a monolingual teaching approach as a learner.

Along with their schooling experience, teachers' professional experience which is firmly grounded in their practices also exerts influence on their beliefs about teaching (Borg, 1999; Breen et al., 2001; Corcoran, 2008; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Turnbull & Lamoureux, 2001; Xu, 2012). It appears that the teaching process helps them crystallise their perceptions of what works best in their particular teaching situation. Kraemer (2006) observed that less experienced teachers are inclined to engage in CS more than experienced ones. As noted in the literature, teacher beliefs about CS are affected by their professional experience and are evolving. Corcoran (2008) and Turnbull and Lamoureux (2001) reported that teachers believed in the value of CS to the L1 following their practicum.

Another source that has a powerful influence on the development of teacher beliefs is pre-service teacher education (Borg, 1999). According to Borg's observation, one lasting outcome of a teacher training program that encouraged the pre-service teachers to base their L2 teaching on communicative principles was their stated beliefs about the inappropriateness of correcting students' grammatical errors in oral tasks. One teacher in Borg's (1998) study commented on the profound effect of his formal training on his belief about the value of the student-centred inductive approach to grammar teaching, and how this belief was reinforced by further training. Several factors were identified to account for the powerful effect of the training program, including the nature of the course (intensive and had practical orientation) and the teacher's admiration for his educators (Borg, 1998).

The social-cultural and institutional contexts and the classroom environment in which teachers work are factors that also impact on teacher beliefs about language teaching and thereby influence their instructional practices (Borg, 2006, 2009; Cross, 2010; Hu, 2005; Johnson, 2009; Kumaravedivelu, 2001). Contextual factors, such as particular features of the society, school policies, curriculum mandates, high-stakes examinations,

time constraints, and learner characteristics prevent teachers from acting in accordance with their beliefs (Borg, 2003). Ng and Farrell (2003) found that although teachers perceived eliciting student responses to error recognition was valuable, they opted to directly correct learners' errors because this approach was faster and more practical in their context. Time constraints were also found to have an impact on language teacher beliefs and practices in Crookes and Arakaki's (1999) study: one teacher's limited time for preparation resulting from a heavy teaching workload led him to select one timesaving exercise, even though he knew there was a better one. Similarly, although believing in the value of using a student-centred teaching approach, the time factor meant that the teacher in Johnson's (1996) study opted for a teacher-centred approach. Perceptions of institutional considerations and norms also frame teachers' beliefs, and therefore, the nature of their practices (Burns, 1996). The findings from Burns' study showed that the teacher's heightened awareness of the de-centralised and needs-based curriculum was pivotal to her thinking about lesson planning, and the content of class tasks and interactions, and she consequently directed her endeavours to "cater for learners' needs" (p.161).

2.3.1.2 Learner beliefs

Learner beliefs are defined as "general assumptions that learners hold about themselves as learners, about factors influencing language learning, and about the nature of language learning and teaching" (Victori & Lockhart, 1995, p.224), and are characterised as part of their experiences (Barcelos, 2000; Kalaja, 1995). Learner beliefs are "socially constructed, emerging from interaction with others" and "more or less variable" because they vary from one learner to another and "from one context to another" (Kalaja, 1995, p.196). Learner beliefs are related to their learning process and learning outcomes (Arnold & Brown, 1999; Dornyei, 2005; Ellis, 2008; Kalaja & Barcelos, 2003; Wenden, 1986), with language learning strategies and motivation (Mori, 1999; Yang, 1999). Learners hold their own beliefs about how an L2 should be learnt and taught in the classroom context, which are induced by their previous classroom experiences (Agudo, 2014; Horwitz, 1987; Peacock, 1998; Tomlinson, 2005; Tudor, 1996), by their personality (Agudo, 2014; Tudor, 1996), and by their own cultural backgrounds (Agudo, 2014; Horwitz, 1987; Peacock, 1998).

2.3.2 Teacher beliefs about code switching practices

Teacher beliefs about CS and its influence on a teacher's use of this strategy have been reported by a number of scholars. Based on the findings of his investigation in 1997, Macaro (2009) postulated that there are three distinct theories regarding CS to the L1: the virtual, maximal and optional position.

Some believe that the classroom is equated with the environment in which only the L2 is used - the virtual position - thereby aiming at total exclusion of the L1. One teacher in McMillan and Turnbull's (2009, p.22) study felt that any use of, or connections with, the L1 "would only cause interference and confusion".

Those teachers subscribing to the maximal position perceive that the L1 has no pedagogical value. Nevertheless, they revert to the L1, as the ideal L2-only teaching and learning condition does not exist. This position is illustrated in Macaro's (2000) study: the majority of teachers considered CS as regrettable, but necessary. Mitchell (1988) reported that the teachers "felt guilty" about using the L1.

The teachers supporting the optimal position acknowledge the pedagogical value in L1 use, and there is a considerable body of evidence in support of this position (Bateman, 2008; Crawford, 2004; Kim & Elder, 2008; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009). Overall, the pedagogical value described by teachers in a range of studies includes aiding student comprehension, communicating aspects of classroom discourse effectively, and facilitating teacher-student relationships.

A recurring theme in most studies investigating teacher attitudes to CS in language teaching was their perceptions that students' current language competence was not sufficient to comprehend their lecture in the L2, as a result of this, they perceived that CS to the L1 addressed this issue (Bateman, 2008; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Flowerdew et al., 1998; Gauci & Grima 2013; Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2001). Grammatical structures of the L2 warrant the use of the L1, as are the linguistic terms used in relation to those structures that are challenging and complicated. Thus, it appears that teachers believed that CS to the L1 enables deeper understandings of syntactic structures (Al-Nofaie, 2010; Bateman, 2008; Cheng, 2013; Crawford, 2004; Gauci & Grima, 2013; Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Liu et al., 2004; Macaro, 2001; Tang, 2002; Then & Ting, 2011). The meaning of lexical items in the L2, particularly abstract

vocabulary is also perceived to be better understood through the support of the L1, which reduces ambiguity (Cheng, 2013; McMillan & Rivers, 2011). Whilst these beliefs relate CS to L1 as having value in ensuring target linguistic accuracy, teachers in some studies also see this practice as the most appropriate medium for cross-cultural comparisons (Bateman, 2008; Crawford, 2004; House, 2009; Stiefel, 2009), as an effective means of giving learners an overview of the lesson content (Ramos, 2005).

Whilst teachers in language classes are most concerned about student comprehension of L2 linguistic features, teachers in discipline-based classes which use a foreign language as medium of instruction are more concerned about student understanding of the subject content. For example, in Probyn's (2001) study, the secondary school teachers teaching a range of subjects (history, business economics, science, accounting and mathematics) reported their primary focus was to communicate the content of their subject, and the L1 was their preferred means of overcoming the barrier that language posed to their understanding of the content. More specifically, Flowerdew et al. (1998) found that university level teachers in Humanities and Sciences classes in China highlighted the role of the L1 in conveying subject matter, such as explaining difficult points, translating key terms, clarifying important points, and citing local examples. The teachers in studies by Mafela (2009) and Setati, Adler, Reed and Bapoo (2002) attributed similar value to the L1.

Apart from concerns for student comprehension, teachers in some studies perceived that CS is useful in facilitating classroom interactions (Crawford, 2004). For example, it enables them to give instructions more effectively (Al-Nofaie, 2010; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002; Then & Ting, 2011). Some teachers also believed CS assisted students to engage in the activity swiftly, allowing greater practice opportunities in the L2 (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009) and was useful in keeping students on task (Bateman, 2008; Kim & Elder, 2008; Liu et al., 2004). Other teachers believed that their use of L1 encouraged the students' participation in classroom activities (Flowerdew et al., 1998; Setati, 1998) such as asking questions (Flowerdew et al., 1998), allowed them to control the speed of classroom interactions and keep the lesson moving in the L1 (Wilkerson, 2008), and to effectively highlight some teaching points (Cheng, 2013; Mafela, 2009; Ramos, 2005).

Teachers in some studies supported the value of CS for the organisation of classroom events mostly because of time constraints they worked under, indicating that L1 use is more efficient for outlining procedures (Bateman, 2008; Canagarajah, 1995; Cheng, 2013; Kim & Elder, 2008; Ramos, 2005; Wilkerson, 2008), or that discipline problems are more effectively addressed in the L1 than L2 (Cheng, 2013; Ferguson, 2003; Macaro, 2001; Ramos, 2005).

Teachers also voiced their concern about their aim to establish sound personal relationships with students by CS (Bateman, 2008; Cheng, 2013; Chitera, 2009; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Flowerdew et al., 1998; Gauci & Grima, 2013; McMillan & Rivers, 2011). Teachers suggested they can build rapport with students by making jokes or socialising with them (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Flowerdew et al., 1998), and that it is useful when giving positive feedback or encouragement (Chitera, 2009; Flowerdew et al., 1998; Gauci & Grima, 2013). These views echo those of Guthrie (1984) and Setati (2005): namely, that using the language shared by teachers and students signals group membership and helps with the establishment of personal connections. Teachers also believed that they can use the L1 to maintain student interest in learning and heighten motivation student learning by individualising their comments or addressing various student expectations (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Gauci & Grima, 2013; Kim & Elder, 2008).

In a Vietnamese EFL context aimed at investigating teacher attitudes toward CS practice through the use of a questionnaire to twelve university teachers and interviewing four of them, Kieu and Kim (2010) reported that, overall, teachers viewed these practices in a positive light: they endorsed CS into Vietnamese for the sake of their students' understanding of the target language grammar and vocabulary, and for checking student comprehension. In Le's (2011) study, the teachers generally favoured using CS to Vietnamese in order to secure student comprehension of the target language forms.

Several factors have been identified as influential for explaining teacher CS such as departmental policy, classroom activity types, the nature of teacher training (Polio & Duff, 1994; Kim & Elder, 2008), perceptions of student language capabilities (Crawford, 2004; Liu et al, 2004), their own language teaching approaches (White & Storch, 2012). However, teacher beliefs have been found to be a primary factor (de la

Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010; Liu et al., 2004; Macaro, 2001). The teachers in two French foreign language classes in White and Storch's (2012) study were guided by their beliefs about the value of CS to the L1 for creating an optimal language program. Liu et al.'s (2004) study of Korean high school teachers found that teacher beliefs and teaching contexts mitigate their use of the L1. In one study by Kim and Elder (2008), one native speaker teacher of Korean deliberately switched to learners' native language due to his perceptions of the great distance between Korean and English that makes Korean challenging to learn.

2.3.3 Teacher code switching from learners' perspectives

Gaining an insight into learners' perspectives of teacher CS has been another research focus in the classroom CS literature. This research area is considered vital because it potentially helps anticipate areas of conflict regarding the language used for instruction (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). It may also provide indirect evidence of the effectiveness of the CS practice (Guo, 2007).

It has been found that learners in a range of studies hold positive attitudes towards teacher CS to the L1. Findings have shown that learners "do not appear to want teacher CS to L1 excluded from classroom interaction" (Macaro & Lee, 2012, p.720), although they have reservations when this practice is used extensively (Macaro, Nakatani, Hayashi & Khabbazzashi, 2014; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008; Varshney & Rolin-Ianziti, 2006; Viakinnou-Brinston, Herro, Cole & Haight, 2012).

In language classes, learners perceive teacher CS as a means of promoting their knowledge of linguistic features of the L2. Of particular concern for a large number of students is their understanding of grammatical structures and unfamiliar lexical items (Chavez, 2003; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008; Viakinnou-Brinson et al., 2012). The learners in Viakinnou-Brinston et al.'s investigation preferred their teachers to use only their mother tongue for grammar explanations because of the ease, speed and accuracy of understandings (2012). Apart from the importance of understanding target language structures, students in most studies placed emphasis on understanding the meaning of lexical items. For example, the learners in Macaro and Lee's (2012) study said that it was easier for both young and adult language learners to understand L2 lexical items through direct comparison with their L1. One adult learner in Macaro and Lee's study highlighted the value of teacher CS for his learning of L2 vocabulary, explaining how

this practice expedited his understanding and, more importantly, ensured acquisition. This echoes comments by a number of participants in Machaal's (2011) investigation, who indicated their strong support for the practice of making connections with their Arabic language when learning English vocabulary. According to some students, teacher CS plays a role in enabling them to recollect the meaning of lexical items (Guo, 2007; Rolin-Ianiti & Varshney, 2008) and supports the development of cultural understandings. For example, Japanese learners of English in Macaro et al.'s (2014) study had a positive view regarding CS by bilingual assistants as this enabled them to understand concepts and culture which were not comprehensible without reference to the L1. Investigations by Brooks-Lewis (2009) and Machaal (2011) suggest that use of CS, particularly in accessing prior knowledge, raises learner awareness of differences and similarities between the two languages, thereby making their L2 learning easier.

A majority of learners in discipline-based classes also view teacher CS in a positive light. Given the added cognitive burden represented by the presence of the L2 when learning a content subject, the learners see teacher CS as a means of strengthening their comprehension, particularly of terms or related concepts integral to their disciplinary areas (Alenezi, 2010; Ariffin & Husin, 2011; Mafela, 2009; Tien, 2009).

Along with comprehension, learners have reported their preference for instructions, evaluation-related issues and administrative information to be explained in the L1 (Ahmad, 2009; Macaro, 1997; Macaro & Lee, 2012; Varshney & Rolin-Ianziti, 2006). The study by Macaro and Lee (2012), for instance, suggests the value that both young and adult learners attached to teacher CS for explanations of complex procedures, whereby explanations in the L1 facilitate the smooth running of the task. However, a large number of participants (66%) in Al-Nofaie's (2010) study disagreed with teacher CS when giving class instructions, as those instructions were already simple to understand. The French learners in Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney's (2008, p.255) study, where "the exclusive use of French in instruction was not only a sign of teaching excellence but also beneficial to learning the language", revealed a similar viewpoint: a high percentage of the learners preferred class instructions to be delivered in the L2. These differences in learner views seem to be related to the teaching techniques deployed by the teachers and the teaching context.

Learners attribute a range of affective benefits to teacher CS. For example, it has been reported that CS mitigates the anxiety inherently associated with L2 learning in their early stages, promotes confidence, creates a sense of achievement (Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Macaro et al., 2014; Varshney & Rolin-Ianziti, 2006); and fuels learners' interest in learning (Gauci & Grima, 2013). Some learners in Gauci and Grima's (2013) study indicated their preference for the use of CS, albeit at a minimal level, for its motivational effect. They contrasted it to the discouragement they felt when a previous teacher had spoken entirely in the L2. Other students maintained that CS increased their involvement in the learning process (Alenezi, 2010; Brooks-Lewis, 2009).

Whilst most studies indicate a positive response to CS by language learners, there are some contrary views. For example, the more proficient learners in a study by Ariffin and Husin (2011) believed that teachers need to focus both on meanings and L2 forms to ensure their understanding of a concept. This group of learners believed that teacher CS used for elaboration purposes may result in the simplification of the L2 structures which will impact on their performance, meaning that they may face difficulty in forming answers in the L2 during exams, a view that the learners in Mafela's (2009) study shared. The learners in Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney's (2008) study indicated that the extensive use of the L1 leads to reduced exposure to the L2 which may have adverse effect on them acquiring the phonetic features of the L2. They also expressed concern over the cognitive reliance on the L1 for L2 processing that use of the L1 would generate. Learner concerns over cognitive reliance on the L1 and its potential to hinder L2 proficiency resulting from teachers' over-use of CS were also identified in other studies (Macaro et al., 2014; Varshney & Rolin-Ianziti, 2006; Viakinnou-Brinson et al., 2012).

In Vietnam, Nguyen, Jang and Yang (2010) administered a questionnaire to a group of Business English majors and found that these university students held similar attitudes toward teacher CS practices to those learners reported in the studies conducted elsewhere. They advocated teacher CS for translating business terms given that business concepts were "almost equally strange to them" (p.9). They also indicated their preference for target language grammatical structures to be explained in the L1 and expressed their desire to build a relationship with their teachers through their mother tongue. The limitation of the study, as stated by the authors themselves, is that the use of the questionnaire, which provided the overall patterns of learners' beliefs, inhibited

further insights into learners' thoughts which would have been obtained by interviewing the participants. This will be addressed in this study.

There is, however, a relative paucity of empirical studies on CS in Vietnamese contexts, and research on CS in classes for Business English remains under-explored. The few studies that have investigated this phenomenon in this context look at CS from either the students' perspective (Nguyen et al., 2010), or teachers' views (Kieu & Kim, 2010), or one teacher's CS behaviour and her motivations for CS (Le, 2013). Clearly, there is a need for a more complete picture of the phenomenon to be examined. Phipps and Borg (2009) asserted that beliefs obtained by way of a questionnaire, as used as a data collection strategy in Nguyen et al. (2010) and Kieu and Kim (2010) may mirror "beliefs about what should be" (p.382). Barcelos (2003, p.15) maintained that information on beliefs collected within a normative approach; namely, through the use of questionnaires is problematic because the beliefs are observed out of context and are not investigated in participants' own terms. Meanwhile, beliefs derived from discussions about classroom practices may reflect and derive from individuals' practical experience (Barcelos, 2003; Phipps & Borg, 2009).

The literature has highlighted the importance of understanding teaching "from the inside" (Bailey, 1996; Nunan, 1996; Richards, 1996): teachers' voices should be heard in order to "understand teaching in its own terms and in ways in which it is understood by teachers" (Richards, 1996, p.282), as teachers are "those who know the story will tell the story" (Bailey, 1996, p.21). Nunan (1996) supports this position and added that students' voices should also be heard in order to achieve an understanding of what is going on in language classrooms.

In summary, following the recommendations about the need to achieve an in-depth understanding of what happens in a language classroom "from the inside" and in response to the dearth of CS data in this particular context, this study examines teacher CS behaviour and teachers' and students' perspectives on this practice.

2.4 Summary

CS can be considered from three perspectives: the structural perspective, which focusses on language-specific or universal models regulating CS patterns; the sociolinguistic approach, which centres on the social meanings and motivations of CS; and the

cognitive-pragmatic approach aiming to account for CS production. The role of the L1 in language pedagogy is still contested, particularly whether or not to include the L1 in language teaching. There are theoretical constructs underpinning arguments for and against inclusion, although the recent trend is toward acknowledging the role of CS to the L1 in language teaching and learning. Teacher and student beliefs are powerful factors influencing the use of CS and give rise to varied teachers' perspectives on CS use from both teachers and students.

Chapter Three: Methodology

This chapter provides a description of the methodology and procedures used in the study. It begins by a brief discussion about the research paradigm and research design, followed by an outline of the research site and information on the participants. The next section outlines the data collection procedures and the approach to data analysis.

3.1 The Research Paradigm and Research Design

The overarching perspective of this study is pragmatism, based on the premise that "actual meaning emerges only when consciousness engages with the world and objects in the world" (Crotty, 1998, p.43). It is a perspective that claims that "knowledge arises out of actions, situations and consequences" (Creswell, 2003, p.11), or "result(s) from taking action and experiencing the outcomes" (Morgan, 2014, p.1049), and that current truth, meaning, and knowledge are tentative and change over time (Creswell, 2007; Feilzer, 2010; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Within the pragmatist paradigm, knowledge is relative and constructed based on the reality of the world we experience; hence, research findings are provisional truths given that experiences change from day-to-day (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Scott & Briggs, 2009).

Ontologically, pragmatism accepts that there are singular and multiple realities that are open to empirical inquiry (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Dewey, 1925; Rorty, 1999). In terms of epistemology, pragmatists take a practical stance. Accordingly, researchers collect data to address research questions by using a "what works" approach (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Scott & Briggs, 2009). Biesta and Burbules (2003, p. 108) asserted that "objects of knowledge are instruments for actions and different objects, different worlds" which provide researchers with "different opportunities and possibilities for action". Pragmatism also employs a research approach that is value-oriented (Cherryholmes, 1992; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004), freeing researchers from the constraint of adhering to a particular method or technique (Biesta, 2010; Creswell, 2007; Feilzer, 2010; Hannes & Lockwood, 2011; Maxcy, 2003; Robson, 1993). This overarching perspective emphasises that pragmatism offers a number of methodological mixes for collecting and analysing data (Biesta & Burbules, 2003; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Creswell, 2009; Doyle, Brady & Byrne, 2009;

Hilderbrand, 2003), which can provide researchers with the best opportunities to address their research questions (Doyle et al., 2009; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

In this study, a mixed methods approach has been adopted. This approach provides two main advantages. First, each method alone has its inherent limitations, when two or more methods are used to explore a phenomenon, shortcomings of each approach may be remedied by combining the methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989; Feilzer, 2010). Second, biases associated with the use of mono-method design will be avoided (Denscombe, 2008; Jehn & Jonsen, 2010), a better understanding of research problems will be obtained (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007) and the validity of inquiry findings will be enhanced (Greene et al., 1989; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004).

Qualitative and quantitative approaches have been combined, particularly for the analysis and interpretation of the video data. Specifically, a quantitative data-analytic technique was added to the analysis of the qualitative data to discern those patterns that emerged in the qualitative data. This was applied to the analysis of the video data in particular in order that a robust insight into patterns of qualitative data was obtained (Miles & Huberman, 1994) and the validity and reliability of the patterns was established (Silverman, 2000). Another quantitative component was the use of techniques to ensure inter-coder reliability of the collected data. This was undertaken for all data sources to minimise a risk of random error and bias in coding processes (Hruschka, Schwartz, St.John, Decaro, Jenkins & Carey, 2004), and because it "can provide evidence that the findings were derived by means of rigorous and objective analysis of qualitative data" (Hannah & Lautsch, 2011, p.15).

3.2 Research Site and Research Participants

The study took place at the Faculty of Languages and Cultural Studies at Hoa Sen University in the south of Vietnam. This location was selected as a research site because of the diversity of participants. Polkinghorne (2005) pointed out that participant diversity provides triangulation on the experience under study, facilitates its core meaning to emerge "by approaching it through different accounts" and allows "the researcher to move beyond a single view of experience" (p.140). This participant diversity can, therefore, contribute to the richness of data.

This institution has a strong and established Business English program with a cohort of committed and highly-qualified teachers. The participants in this study are teachers and students in the English for Business Communication stream at HSU, several of whom hold master degrees from domestic and overseas institutions while a small number possess doctoral qualifications. HSU also has a diverse student population who are recruited from different parts of Vietnam (both rural and urban areas), based on an annual university examination. The students' English proficiency varies significantly as a result of socioeconomic divides in rural and urban settings.

All teachers who were assigned to teach Business English in one semester were approached by email with an invitation to participate and were given an outline of the purpose of the study. At that time, there were eight Business English classes ranging from Elementary Business English 2 to Advanced Business English 1 and 2. Five out of the eight teachers (Teachers 1-5) indicated their willingness to participate in the study, whilst the other three declined due to the time commitments involved. A profile of the five participating teachers is provided in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Teacher profiles

Study code	Gender	Qualification	Years of teaching experience in Business English	Level of Business English class
1	Male	M.A	12	Advanced BE 2
2	Female	M.A	10	Advanced BE1
3	Female	M.A	4	Advanced BE1
4	Male	M.A	2	Elementary BE2
5	Male	M.A	2	Advanced BE1

The majority of student participants were enrolled in a Bachelors degree in English within the English for Business Communication stream and a minority of students were enrolled in other disciplines within the Faculty of Economics and Commerce, taking Business English as an elective. Student participants were recruited from the classes of Teachers 1-5, as these students were in a position to comment on their teachers' CS practices. An invitation to participate in this study was handed out to all students in the five classes in week two of semester 1, 2012. The number of student participants in each

of the five classes varied from five to ten, with a total number of thirty nine students participating in the study (Table 3.2)

Table 3.2: Student profiles

Class	Numbers of students	Level of Business English class	Age range	Gender
1	9	Advanced BE 2	20-21	Female (5) and male (4)
2	10	Advanced BE 1	19-20	Female (5) and male (5)
3	6	Advanced BE 1	19-20	Female (4) and male (2)
4	9	Elementary BE2	18-19	Female (9) and male (0)
5	5	Advanced BE1	19-20	Female (3) and male (2)

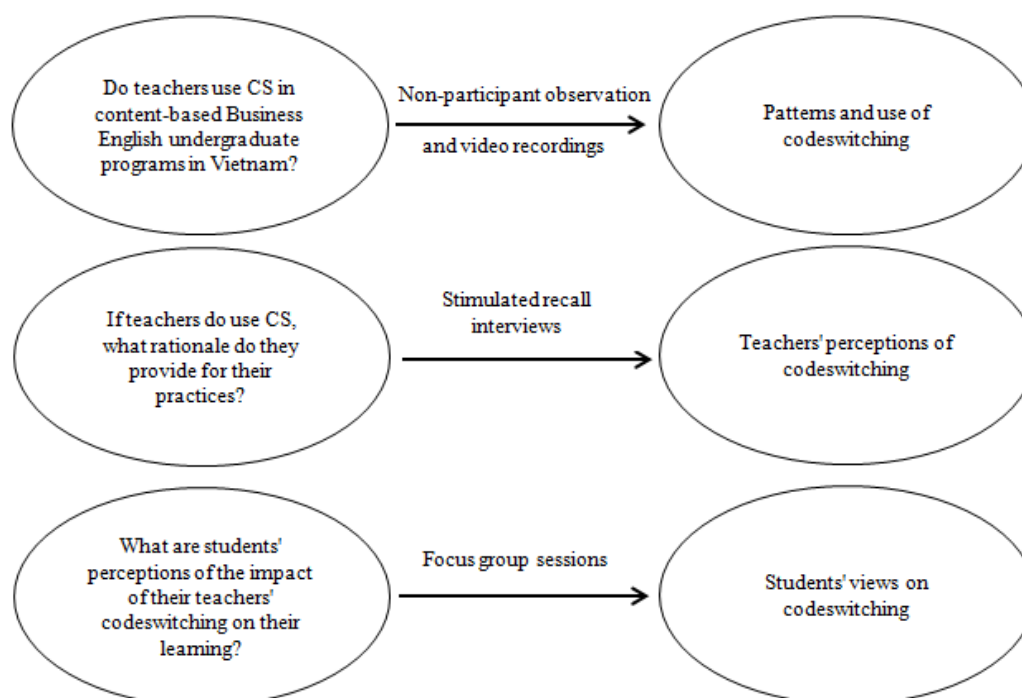
3.3 Data Collection Procedures

This study sought to identify the CS used by the teachers, the teachers' rationales behind their CS practices, and the students' perceptions of their teachers' CS practices. To do this, multiple methods of data collection were used; namely, classroom observations and interviews with the teachers and students. Such multi-data sources facilitated the triangulation in data sources, affording greater validity (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 1990). Specifically, the three data collection procedures consisted of: non-participant observation of classroom activities (accompanied by videoing of the teaching sessions); stimulated recall interviews with the teachers, and focus group sessions with the students.

Non-participant observation of classes was used to investigate teachers' CS practices, particularly patterns of CS and their functions in classroom discourse. Based on Breen et al.'s advice that "we cannot deduce language pedagogies on the basis of teachers' accounts of how they work without reflecting with them upon *actual instances* of practice" (2001, p.498; italics original), the use of stimulated recall interviews facilitated by the video data were conducted to encourage teachers' cognitive reflection and allow the teachers to vocalise the motivations behind their CS behaviour. What the students perceived to be the impact of their teachers' CS on their learning was identified in focus group sessions.

The following figure summarises the data collection procedures used in this study.

Figure 3.1: Data collection procedures



3.3.1 Non-participant observations

This study adopted overt observations, in which participants were aware that they were being observed (Dawson, 2002) and knew the purposes of the study (Sarantakos, 1998). There was a concern that the teachers' awareness of the purposes of the study might contaminate the natural data; that is, they would not use the language of instruction (English) in their normal way. To the extent possible, strategies were adopted to negate this possibility. To supplement the video recordings, field notes were taken of the lesson descriptions, the structure and flow of lessons, demographic information, contexts in which CS occurred and were accompanied by reflections on the observed lessons.

All the observations for this study were non-participant and unstructured (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Non-participant observation is “a situation in which the observer observes but does not participate in what is going on” (Bryman, 2008, p. 257). This data collection method offers the opportunity to gather first-hand, live and rich data from a natural setting and provides the observer with knowledge of the context which can then be used as a reference in the data analysis stage. This method also

allows more opportunities to take field notes than other forms of observation (Merriam, 1998). The observation also provides actual records rather than relying solely on self-reports (Dörnyei, 2007; McMillan & Wergin, 2006). For this study, the focus of observations (and videorecording) was on teachers' utterances (see Appendix 2 for a sample of lesson observation).

Videotaping of the observed lessons has distinct advantages over other forms of recording. Latvala, Vuokila-Oikkonen and Janhonen (2000) argued that memos and field notes taken by a human observer have subjective tones because the observer's perspectives influence, to some extent, the observations. In this regard, videotaping allows what is being observed to remain intact, thus any potential researcher bias can be reduced. In addition, the recording of both verbal and non-verbal interactions provides more dense data. The credibility of recorded data is reinforced because the data permanence allows the possibility of a more complete and thorough analysis and review by subsequent researchers, if required (Latvala et al., 2000). Use of video technology enables researchers to view the same events multiple times in different dimensions, increasing the likelihood of capturing behaviour that may have gone unnoticed (Jacobs, Kawanaka & Stigler, 1999) or identifying different features of the videotaped data (Bottorff, 1994).

In an endeavour to overcome one of the inherent drawbacks of video recording as an observation method – namely, that the presence of an observer and camera may alter behaviour – the classes were observed a number of times (3) over the course of the semester and lasted the entire teaching session (2.5 hours). The camera was placed at the back of the classroom so as not to obstruct class procedures and to minimise any distraction. This promoted an environment where both the teacher and the students became used to the fact that their class activities were being recorded and gradually took the observer and camera presence for granted (Bowling, 1997; Frankenberg, 1980; Vesterinen, Toom & Patrikainen, 2010) and the "observer paradox" was minimised (Labov, 1972, as cited in Murphy, 2010, p.33). Creswell (1998), and Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommended that prolonged engagement in the field brings opportunities to build trust with participants. Multiple recordings over the thirteen-week semester also aimed to provide triangulation of data sources; that is, multiple indicators of the phenomenon under study were triangulated through plural recordings. Prolonged engagement also enhanced the robustness of the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), as the

observations during this period of time repaid efforts to build up trust with the teachers, which in turn facilitated the elicitation of rich data from them.

At this institution, in addition to the formal assessments conducted by the Faculty twice every semester, teachers conducted on-going assessments which were varied and administered at different times during the semester. Taking this into account, the original plan for observations was modified and the observations took place in weeks three, six and nine of semester one of the academic year 2012. However, classes that were involved on-going assessment, examination or general administrative activities were not included in the observation data during these periods and alternate times were selected in order to maximise the amount of teacher talk that was recorded.

The type of camera used and the position in which it is placed governs data quality (Pirie, 1996), therefore, in this study, a small, digital video camera placed at the back of the classroom was used to ensure optimum aural and visual data capture. Additionally, basic videographic techniques were developed by trialling the procedure prior to the first observation to ensure that the position of the camera would allow for the best recorded images. The camera trial was also used to resolve any potential technical problems.

3.3.2 Stimulated recall interviews

Subsequent to each observation and video recording session, stimulated recall interviews were organised with participating teachers to discuss the instances of CS in the lesson(s) and to allow them to present retrospective accounts of their CS practices. Most of the teachers attended three interview sessions, but one teacher (teacher 2) attended only two because her second observed lesson was delivered predominantly in English. These interview sessions were conducted on site at mutually convenient times to the teachers and the investigator.

Stimulated recall interviews are an introspective method which deploys tangible visual or aural reminders to prompt the participant to recall thoughts s/he had while performing a task (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Its first use is often attributed to Bloom (1953) who endeavoured to investigate students' thought processes in two different learning situations by playing back audiotapes of lectures and discussions to obtain their commentary. The idea underlying stimulated recall is that, through introspective means,

people verbalise their thought processes in a similar way to commenting on external real world events (Gass & Mackey, 2000). The naturalistic context provided by the video recordings can assist participants to present analytical accounts of their actions *in situ* (Lyle, 2003).

This technique was also selected for this study because it has the potential to uncover cognitive processes which might not be evident through simple observation (Gass & Mackey, 2000). When participants are provided with a large number of stimuli or cues, it is claimed that they will experience an original situation again in their imagination with great accuracy (Bloom, 1953; Calderhead, 1981; Gass & Mackey, 2000; Yinger, 1986). Rowe (2009) asserted that this technique can provide a valuable "insider" perspective on the phenomena under investigation which complements the researcher's "outsider" observation. Also, participants can be empowered by this technique as they can raise their own concerns and discuss instances which they find important or interesting. This can create a relaxed atmosphere during the interview process, which in turn promotes the collection of rich and diverse data (Dempsey, 2010; Rowe, 2009). Speer (2005, p.224) highlighted the benefit of using video-clip playback in researching teacher cognition: the focus is placed on specific examples of teacher practices, as "coarse-grain-sized characterisations of beliefs and general descriptions of teaching practices appear unlikely to do justice to the complex, contextually dependent acts of teaching".

However, one of the dangers of the stimulated recall interview is that participants might 'create' explanations about links between recorded actions and the teacher's intentions in doing it. In an attempt to reduce this, some strategies to address the potential problems were used. Cognitive information provided by the participants was identified only if it was related to a concrete action (Gass & Mackey (2000); that is, each CS episode was replayed for the teacher's comments.

Given the reduced accuracy of memory over time and to assure a higher level of validity, the interview sessions were arranged shortly after each video recorded lesson (Bloom, 1953; Gass & Mackey, 2000). The time lag was a maximum of three days, as recommended by Gass and Mackey (2000), to improve the accuracy of the teacher's memory.

The participating teachers were also provided with limited instruction on how to provide their recall so as to avoid adverse influences on the recalled data (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Prompts or questions were offered to encourage the teacher to verbalise their thoughts, but was never such that they could alter the cognitive processes deployed in the event (Lyle, 2003). Given that questions can affect the nature of the data (Calderhead, 1981), the questions were trialled for their ambiguity or imposed ideas prior to the first interview with appropriate people who did not participate in the study. Based on the feedback received, the questions were modified. There were three categories of questions used in the recall sessions: factual questions, which elicited contextual information; analytical questions, which elicited expositions based on recall; and opinion questions, to elicit perceptions about their actions in situ (Evans, 2009) (see Appendix 3 for a copy of the interview schedule).

Research has shown that the choice of spoken language for interviews can affect the quality of responses (Bond, 1986). The teachers could choose either English or Vietnamese as the language of conversation to guarantee that they were comfortable with the interview situation. All the teachers opted for Vietnamese.

3.3.3 Focus group sessions

The student participants took part in focus groups, a form of group interview, which rely on the interaction within the group when discussing a topic supplied by the researcher (Cohen et al., 2007). Taking into account the merits of focus groups and the fact that "attitudes and perceptions relating to concepts are developed by interaction with people" (Krueger, 1994, p.10), this technique was selected to elicit students' perceptions of their teachers' CS practices.

This method of interviewing had a number of distinct advantages over individual student interviews. For instance, group interactions generated by focus groups create a more natural environment than that of an individual interview because they include a range of communicative processes in which each individual may influence or be influenced by others - as they are in their real life (Krueger, 1994; Wilkinson, 1998). The process of interaction provides the opportunity to obtain the meanings and answers to a problem that are "socially constructed rather than individually created" (Berg, 2004, p. 127), leading to the capture of real-life data.

The distinct feature of group interaction offered by this technique makes it a powerful means of obtaining deeper and richer data than those from individual interviews (Krueger, 1994, Rabiee, 2004). Focus groups can also involve a larger number of participants than can be accommodated through individual interviews (Berg, 2004; Cohen et al., 2007; Gay & Airasian, 2000). As participants discuss, debate, disagree, and even challenge each other's perspectives, more elaborated accounts than are generated in one-to-one interviews are produced (Wilkinson, 1998).

The format and flexibility of focus groups allows the investigator to probe, which in turn can help participants clarify issues themselves (Krueger, 1994) and simultaneously assist researchers in gaining insights into a wide variety of different views pertinent to the research problem (Bryman, 2008). Using this technique provided the opportunity to collect in-depth information about "how people think about an issue, their reasoning about why things are as they are, why they hold the views they do" (Laws, Harper & Marcus, 2003, p. 299). Finally, focus groups provide a valuable way to gather data on values and opinions because they empower and encourage participants to voice their opinions freely (Cohen et al., 2007, p.376).

Five out of eight teachers agreed to participate in this study and the students from their classes were invited to contribute to the focus groups. The literature has recommended that in order to ensure diversity of information, the ideal size for a focus group is between six to ten people (John, 2003; Krueger & Casey, 2000). Discussion may be difficult to generate in a group of fewer than six members as the restricted size may inhibit the pool of total ideas (Krueger, 1993); for a group size above ten, there may be difficulty in controlling discussion, which would require a high level of moderator involvement (Morgan, 1997). For this study, in order to take into account the possibility that some participants might not show up on the prearranged meeting days, a 20% over-recruitment rate of the total numbers of participants was applied (Morgan, 1997). The number of students who indicated their willingness to participate in the study ranged from eight to seventeen per group. Personalised follow-up letters were sent out one week before the interview sessions and telephone calls were made one day prior to the interview sessions to promote attendance; on the interview days, the number of students per focus group ranged five members to one with ten members.

A schedule of guide questions was developed to engage the students and to stimulate group discussion. The guide questions were first reviewed by expert others to determine whether they would stimulate discussion and to ensure the appropriateness and clarity of the wording (Krueger & Casey, 2009). A second test of the guide questions was undertaken with potential participants to fine-tune the questions, to seek comments and to make adjustments to the whole procedure, as recommended by Krueger (1994). As a result, minor changes to the wording of the questions were made (see Appendix 4 for sample guide questions).

In order to create an environment conducive to honest answers, questions ranged from general enquiries about the language used for instruction in current Business English classes and their preferred language of instruction, to more specific and important questions about their perspective on the influences on their learning of their teacher's CS practices. The guide questions included opening, introductory, transition, key and ending questions (Krueger & Casey, 2009). The opening question was an 'ice breaker' to encourage students to start talking and to make them feel comfortable. The introductory questions encouraged participants to think about their connection with the topic and promoted conversation, while the transition questions linked the introductory and key questions and helped students provide information in more depth. Two to five key questions were used, along with follow-up questions to amplify the concept, when necessary. Finally, the ending questions brought closure to the discussion.

There were two distinct parts to the focus group sessions. In the first half, the guide questions were used; in the second half, the video recordings of their teacher's talk involving CS were used as stimuli to encourage the students to discuss their perceptions of these CS practices. At the beginning of each focus group session, the students seemed reserved when discussing language use and comments were sometimes slightly off topic or even irrelevant. As the interview progressed they became more engaged when exchanging their viewpoints, the result of which was multifaceted propositions from the students expressing their perceptions of their teachers' CS practices.

These interviews were audio recorded and the recordings were supplemented by written notes, taken by a trained moderator assistant, about any non-verbal interactions that occurred. The investigator, acting as the moderator, actively listened to the participants

and facilitated group discussion by probing thoroughly when needed or skipping over repeated areas (Morgan, 1997) and employed neutral verbal and nonverbal cues to participants and maintained effective control of the group (Krueger, 1994).

Environmental and group composition factors were also taken into account as highlighted by Krueger (1994). A proper physical environment was provided – sessions were conducted in a familiar setting (their classroom) which was comfortable (air-conditioned) and relaxed (students were provided with refreshments) (Krueger, 1994). In addition, for student convenience, the focus group sessions were conducted on the same days they normally attended class in week 10 and lasted around 30-45 minutes. The students were also offered the option of having the discussion in either English or Vietnamese and all five groups opted for their mother tongue. Further, the homogeneity of each focus group (the student participants within each class were of similar educational level, background and age) ensured that participants had shared experiences, and this helped increase their comfort in the interview situation and facilitated "free-flowing" conversations (Krueger & Casey, 2000).

3.4 Data Analysis

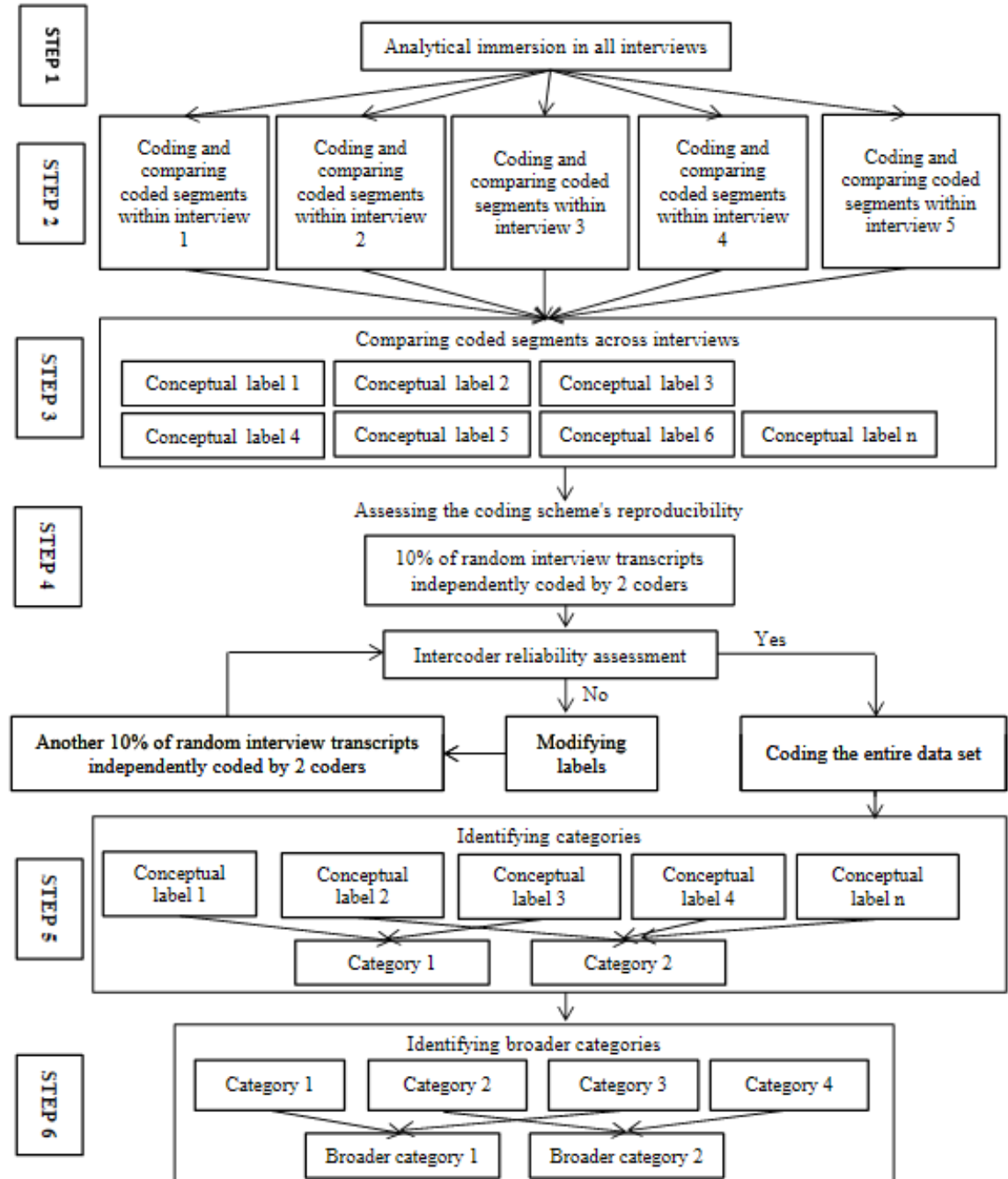
The data generated through this study were analysed, using a constant comparative approach (Cresswell, 1998; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). This inductive method of analysis was selected for a number of reasons: it could be used with virtually all sources of data, including observations, videos (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2008), which were the data gathering strategies for this study; it offers a systematic coding of data corpus (Charmaz, 2006); and, "systematic rigour and thoroughness" in the coding provided by constant comparison increases the credibility of the findings (Patton, 2002, p.48). Further, in order to ensure trustworthiness, prior to data analysis, member checking with the participants to check the credibility and accuracy of the transcripts was adopted (Creswell, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1984). Analysis "within case" was compared "across cases" for commonalities of CS practices, the teachers' accounts of their CS and the students' perceptions (Ayres, Kavanaugh & Knafl, 2003).

3.4.1 The analysis of the interview data

All the recordings of the teacher and the student interviews were transcribed in their entirety in Vietnamese. The complete transcriptions were undertaken by the researcher in order to gain familiarity with the data. It should be noted that transcription symbols

and the participants' non-verbal language were not included because they were not the focus of analysis. The transcripts were then translated into English by the researcher, and the translated transcripts were checked by an accredited translator for any ambiguous or non-standard English expressions. Communicative translations of the participants' quotes were adopted in order to ensure the readability of the translated transcripts (Birbili, 2000). The original language (Vietnamese) was retained for data analysis in order to avoid potential meaning being lost in the translation process (Nes, Abma, Jonsson & Deeg, 2010). However, codes and categories were translated into English to allow the research to get feedback from the supervisors. The following figure summarises the procedure for the analysis of the interview data (teacher and student).

Figure 3.2: Procedure for analysis of interview data



Step 1: Analytical immersion

All the transcripts were read to allow the investigator to familiarise with the data and be analytically immersed in them (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003; Braun & Clarke, 2006)

and to acquire a sense of the accounts that each individual participant gave about their beliefs and perceptions. The meaning unit was selected as the segmenting unit of analysis because this is less likely to decontextualise what the participants are saying (Garrison, Cleveland-Innes, Koole & Kappelman, 2006); therefore, any "segment of text that is comprehensible by itself" was the unit of coding, regardless of length - phrases, sentences, or paragraphs that directly related to the participants' experiences were identified and highlighted (Tesch, 1990, p.116). The outcomes of this analytical immersion were a collection of relevant statements from all transcripts.

Step 2: Coding and comparing coded data segments within an interview

Each word, phrase, sentence or passage that expressed the teachers' rationale for their CS practices was coded with a conceptual label. These words, phrases, sentences or passages were used as codes because participants' words "are always more evocative of their subjective experience" (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003, p.58). Moreover, using their words "can provide a crucial check on whether what is significant to the participants has been grasped", it helps "crystallise and condense meanings" (Charmaz, 2006, p.7) and "honour[s] their voice" (Saldana, 2009, p.76). However, because "sometimes the participant says it best; sometimes the researcher does" (Saldana, 2009, p.76), some codes were generated based on the data, provided that the codes captured the essence of the participants' experience and reflected the data. Given that all participating teachers and students opted for responding to the interview questions in Vietnamese, the coding was conducted on Vietnamese transcripts to ensure the preservation of meaning in the data. The conceptual labels were then translated into English for the presentation of findings.

Conceptual labels within an interview were then compared with one another in order to refine them and formulate the core message of an interview (Boeije, 2002). The conceptual labels were then compared with the data segments to ensure that they reflected and fitted the data. Analytical notes were taken to record analytical ideas and provide ideas for the presentation of findings.

Step 3: Comparing coded data segments across interviews

Fragments from the teacher and student interviews that had been given the same codes were compared to further refine the codes of the whole database and to categorise them.

Step 4: Assessing the coding scheme's reproducibility

In order to ensure that "a single coder may be reasonably confident that his or her coding would be reproducible" (Campbell, Quincy, Osserman & Pedersen, 2013, p.297), and to satisfy readers that the data are sound (Hruschka et al., 2004; Krippendorff, 2004), codes were assessed for an acceptable level of reliability as follows:

The set of codes, their definitions, coding instructions and examples illustrating codes were given to two other coders (specifically other researchers undertaking their PhD studies in Education).

- As it is acceptable to establish intercoder reliability on a sample of texts to be analysed (Krippendorff, 2004), 10 percent of the set of interview transcripts, as recommended by Hodson (1999, p.29), was randomly selected for the assessment of intercoder reliability.
- Given that different coders unitise the text differently, and it would be difficult to determine whether their coding was the same, the text which was given to the two coders was unitised and coded by the investigator (Campbell et al., 2013). As the unitisation of text "depends on the analyst's ability to see meaningful conceptual breaks in the continuity of his reading experiences" (Krippendorff, 2004, p.98), it could be argued that the investigator - who has a good understanding of the research issue - could "discern not only obvious but also more subtle meanings" of a participant's response (Campbell et al., 2013, p.304).
- Once the text had been fully coded and saved, a copy of this text which had all the codes removed was given to the two coders. In this way, both coders coded the same units of text and this approach could facilitate the assessment of intercoder reliability (Campbell et al., 2013).
- The level of intercoder reliability for a code was determined by using the statistical technique proposed by Miles and Huberman (1984, p.63). That is, the number of coding agreements was divided by the sum of number of agreements

and disagreements. This technique was used to calculate overall intercoder reliability for all codes as a set.

- A score of 90 percent or better was considered as "necessary for maximum consistency of coding" (DeCuir-Gunby, Marshall & McCulloch, 2011, p.149). In this study, after a few coding iterations, the percentage agreement achieved was 90.5, 91.3 and 90 percent respectively for the video data, teacher interview data and student interview data. Therefore, the coding was deemed to be at an acceptable level of reliability.

Step 5: Identifying categories

All the codes were scrutinised along with the analytical notes to identify conceptual connections among the codes. Similar codes were collated to formulate categories (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Grbich, 2007). Once the categories were identified, they were compared with the data to ascertain that they reflect the meaning of the data set (Freeman, 1996).

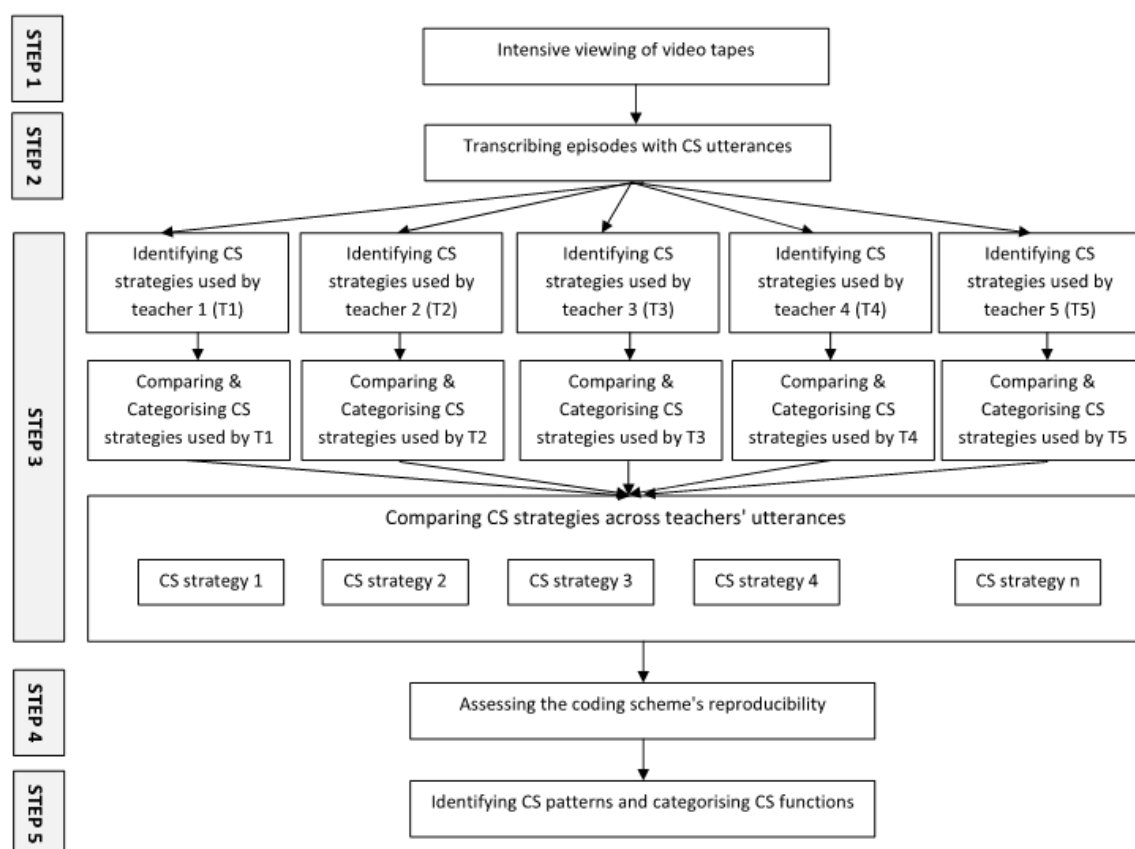
Step 6: Identifying broader categories and reporting findings

Categories were scrutinised to identify connections at the conceptual level. Broader categories that incorporated aspects of the beliefs and perceptions described by the participants were formulated. The participants' beliefs and perceptions were retold, using categories for structure formulation and their own language for vivid illustration.

3.4.2 The analysis of the video data

The procedure for video data analysis is outlined in Figure 3.3. Procedures for the analysis of videotaped data were developed based on the guidelines of the constant comparative method and the analysis model proposed by Powell, Francisco and Maher (2003) and involved five distinct steps:

Figure 3.3: Procedure for analysis of video data



The videotape was used as the primary source of data for analysis because the transcriptions alone had the potential to miss some important aspects of data (Powell et al., 2003). Additionally, coding from videotapes facilitates the maintenance of the video data richness (Rosenblum, Zeanah, McDonough & Muzik, 2004).

Transcription of episodes containing the teachers' CS practices was undertaken to be analysed along with the videotapes because regardless of the technology of replay, the visual and aural data of the videotapes are transient which may not offer the opportunities for extended analysis of a video (Powell et al., 2003). The transcripts were

used to provide evidence of findings, using the participants' language for vivid illustration.

Step 1: Intensive viewing of videotapes

The videotapes were viewed on a number of occasions to obtain familiarity with the data and to develop a basic understanding of the contents. Descriptive notes were taken to achieve deeper comprehension of the videotape material. A time-indexed outline of episodes with the teachers' CS practices was noted for further reference.

Step 2: Transcribing episodes with CS utterances

All episodes that involved CS utterances by the teachers were thoroughly reviewed and transcribed. The teachers' utterances in Vietnamese were translated into English. The antecedent and consequent statements of all teachers' CS utterances were transcribed to provide contexts for the CS utterances.

Step 3: Identifying CS strategies

Each episode with CS utterances was closely and intensively viewed and cross-referenced with the transcripts, field notes and analytic notes to identify CS strategies. Types of CS strategies were generated from the data, closely describing the context in which CS occurred. The CS strategies identified in the three lessons conducted by each teacher were then compared to identify the regularities in, and distinctiveness of, their CS practices. These strategies were then refined and categorised by comparing with the original context in which the CS utterances occurred. Analytical notes were taken to provide clues for the identification of conceptual connections among CS strategies and the provision of ideas.

Step 4: Assessing the coding scheme's reproducibility

The same procedure for assessing the coding scheme (as described in the analysis of the interview data – see 3.5.1 above) was also applied at this stage.

Step 5: Comparing and identifying CS patterns and categorising possible functions of classroom discourse involving CS

In order to develop a more in-depth understanding of how CS was used, the frequency with which CS strategies occurred by context was tabulated to discern CS patterns (Sandelowski, 2001). Frequency count patterns "emerge with greater clarity" (Dey, 1993, p.198) and confirm the patterns (Sandelowski, 2001). CS strategies identified in all teachers' utterances were scrutinised and were then grouped according to the context in which they occurred and descriptive statistics were obtained to categorise the possible functions of classroom discourse involving CS.

3.5 Summary

This chapter has outlined the research paradigm, data collection strategies, and data collection procedures employed to address the research questions. Fifteen class observations, fourteen stimulated recall interviews and three focus group interviews were conducted. The research site and research participants have been described. The procedures used for data analysis and techniques employed to ensure the reliability of the data are detailed.

Chapter Four: Findings - Classroom Observations

This chapter, which is divided into two sections, describes teacher CS practices in the observed lessons. The first section outlines the patterns of teacher CS practices, and the second section examines the functional categories of teacher CS.

4.1 Code Switching Patterns

The analysis of the teachers' discourse during their classes revealed distinct patterns of CS practices. Specifically, switching was observed to occur at various levels; namely, lexical switching, phrasal switching, sentence switching, and mixed switching (both the use of brief Vietnamese words, phrases, sentences and a combination of English and Vietnamese). As can be seen in Table 4.1, lexical CS was predominant, followed by sentence CS and then mixed CS. Examples of phrasal CS were few. Table 4.1 outlines the distribution of these patterns for each teacher (The number of instances of each level of code switching used by each of the five teachers has been shown as a percentage of the overall instances of code switching by the teacher).

Table 4.1: Code switching patterns of the five teachers

Patterns	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	Total
Lexical CS	6 (60%)	18 (94.7%)	3 (75%)	7 (21.2%)	27 (47.3%)	61 (49.5%)
Phrasal CS	0	0	0	0	3 (5.2%)	3 (2.4%)
Sentence CS	3 (30%)	1 (5.2%)	1 (25%)	14 (42.4%)	15 (26.3%)	34 (27.6%)
Mixed CS	1 (10%)	0	0	12 (36.3%)	12 (21%)	25 (20.3%)
Total CS instances	10 (100%)	19 (100%)	4 (100%)	33 (100%)	57 (100%)	123 (100%)

The five teachers (T1-T5) were each observed three times. T1(C1) refers to CS occurrences obtained in class 1 by T1, T2(C1) refers to switches observed in class 1 by T2 and so on. The following section provides detailed descriptions of teacher CS patterns illustrated with examples from the data. It should be noted that the definitions of CS patterns emerged from the study itself.

4.1.1 Lexical switching

As identified in Table 4.1, the most frequent pattern of teacher CS was lexical switching. This refers to instances when the teachers predominantly used English in their discourse, but provided a brief summary of the meaning of newly-introduced English business terms using single words in Vietnamese. The following examples represent a pattern of CS that was fairly common amongst the participants (see Appendix 5 for further examples).

Example 1

While providing answers to a vocabulary exercise in which the students were asked to categorise different activities in the process of project planning, T5 spoke mainly in English, but switched to Vietnamese to provide a meaning specific to the context in which the business term occurred:

...now the next activity is to forecast cost, forecast cost dự đoán chi phí [forecast cost]¹. This activity goes with number 4. Now next, select project teams - that means you choose the members for your project... - T5(C1).

There were several incidents in which lexical switches in Vietnamese were followed by English definitions, as illustrated in the following example.

Example 2

Starting a class discussion about challenges the students usually face while working in groups, T2 introduced the word "allocate" in the following manner:

....How do you deal with the problem if one member dominates the group? Here can we use the word 'allocate'? 'Allocate' - what does it mean? Allocate here means to decide a particular piece of work, or amount of money, or time for someone for a particular purpose. So what is the Vietnamese meaning for this word? phân bổ [allocate] - T2(C1).

Business terms were also defined and contextualised in English, and then translated into Vietnamese.

¹ The translations of Vietnamese switches are in square brackets.

Example 3

When introducing the term "seasonal work", T1 gave a definition in English related to the business term which drew on students' familiar experiences and then translated the term into Vietnamese:

...seasonal work, what does that mean? It means the work that happens regularly at a certain time of the year. For example, during the Christmas season, what is popular seasonal work then? A lot of Santa Clauses deliver gifts to children or during Tet, for example, some supermarkets would like to recruit people to wrap gifts or deliver them, công việc thời vụ [seasonal work] - T1(C2).

4.1.2 Phrasal switching

Unlike lexical switching, phrasal switching, which was rarely found in the observed lessons, is the provision of the meaning of a business term, using an incomplete sentence or phrase in Vietnamese. It does appear that providing such brief Vietnamese translations for some business items proved counterproductive due to the resultant circumlocution in Vietnamese (longwinded and ambiguous language being used). The following example illustrates this CS pattern:

Example 4

T5 discussed the term "logistics" by providing its definition in English and some phrases in Vietnamese:

...Logistics, what does that mean? It involves transporting or delivering goods or the management of the flow of resources between the point of origin and point of destination ngành vận chuyển, phân phối hàng hóa, sắp xếp hậu cần [transporting, distributing goods, arrangement of distribution network] - T5(C3).

4.1.3 Sentence switching

Sentence switching, which was the second most frequent CS type, refers to instances when the teachers, within an utterance, were speaking in English but shifted into Vietnamese at the sentence level. Sentences in Vietnamese were either close reiterations of the preceding English utterance or a statement with extra information incorporated into it.

Example 5

In a post-listening section, T4 went through each listening comprehension question and reiterated it in Vietnamese:

...Now question number 3: 'How do some managers exploit this situation?' To exploit means to make use of, or to take advantage of. Như vậy các ông sắp khai thác tình huống này như thế nào? They sell shares before the market changes...Next, question 4: 'How are employees generally evaluated?' Các nhân viên được đánh giá như thế nào? - T4(C2).

Example 6

Unlike example 5, in which the Vietnamese statements are translations of the preceding English utterance, during a reading session T5 incorporated some Vietnamese statements with extra information into his English discourse:

...Besides producing mobile phones for people, the company also produces mobile phones for pets - astounding devices that can connect family members with pets. This is not quite as ridiculous as it sounds, but the risk is that the mobile industry has become a victim of its own success, which sells almost 600 million units a year². The company has been very successful, right? But why did the writer say 'the victim' here? Hả bán quá nhiều mà tại sao lại là nạn nhân?...Một khi công ty nào đó có doanh số bán ra tăng quá nhiều trong thời gian ngắn nhưng không có kế hoạch dài hơi hoặc không có đủ nhân viên thì sớm muộn cũng thất bại. Hay nói cách khác sẽ là nạn nhân của chính sự thành công của mình..." [...its sales have significantly increased, but it has become a victim?...A company that does not have long-term plans nor...have sufficient staff members to respond to an unexpected jump in sales might fail sooner or later. In other words, it will become a victim of its own success.] - T5(C3).

² The teachers' utterances in English, which preceded and /or followed CS, are in plain typeface, and the English text which was read aloud by the teachers is underlined.

4.1.4 Mixed switching

Mixed switching describes incidents when there is a combination of lexical and phrasal switching within a teacher's utterance. In the following example, a brief summary of meaning of each business term was provided followed by a further explanatory discussion about its meaning.

Example 7

...Another untapped market, a potential market - thị trường tiềm năng, thị trường chưa khai thác hết - is phones for children, for infants [potential market, all the individuals or organisations who have some level of interest in a particular product] - T5(C3).

Mixed switching also applies to incidents in which some teachers alternated between English and Vietnamese in one utterance. As can be seen in the following example, while eliciting the answer to a listening comprehension question, T4 directed the students' attention to the question, hinted at the answer in Vietnamese, and used English and Vietnamese concurrently to explain the question.

Example 8

...Now mấy bạn coi câu hỏi number 1 'What were the stock options intended to do?' Có nghĩa là các công ty dùng stock options để làm gì? Mấy bạn nhìn lại ý trong đoạn này, người ta dùng -shares or stock options để trả lương cho CEO. It's the best form of incentive or motivation for the CEO làm việc. Vậy câu hỏi - stock options - dùng để làm gì? Dùng làm động cơ đúng không? Nên các bạn sẽ trả lời là - to motivate CEO.

[...Now look at question number 1 'What were the stock options intended to do?' That means what companies use stock options for. Now look at some hints in this passage - shares or stock options are used to compensate the CEO. It's the best form of incentive or motivation for the CEO to devote more time to his work. So what are stock options used? It is used to motivate the CEO, isn't it? So you should say to motivate the CEO] - T4(C1).

These findings confirm reports in the literature that CS involves syntactic units of varying size, including lexical, phrasal, sentence boundaries, turns and texts (Grosjean,

1982; Kecskes, 2006). These findings also lend support to the CS patterns identified in other studies which found that L1 equivalents of L2 words were noticeable (Arthur & Martin, 2006; Guo, 2007; Marcaro, 2001; Martin, 1996). Kecskes (2006) dual language model maintains that the dominance of lexical switching, that is the reduplication of business terms in Vietnamese, suggests that the teacher participants were likely to identify the conceptual equivalents of the terms in English and Vietnamese and that participants engaged in switches of different sized syntactic units to express their thoughts in particular teaching contexts. The other CS patterns in this study are in line with those in studies by Canagarajah (1995), Martin (1996), and Polio and Duff (1994), who reported CS patterns such as phrases, a sequence of L1 utterances embedded in the teachers' otherwise L2 discourse, and reformulation of statements across the two languages.

4.2. Functional Categories of Teacher Code Switching

In line with other studies about the functions of teacher CS (Adendorff, 1996; Ferguson, 2003; Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Lin, 1996), this study found three functional categories of CS: namely, a strategy for constructing knowledge, a discourse for managing the class, and a way of building interpersonal relations. Table 4.2 provides an overview of these functional categories and frequency counts for each teacher. The table shows CS occurrences were predominant in episodes where the teachers were discussing content-related issues and explaining features of English, whilst switches in the other two categories were not noticeable.

Table 4.2: Functional categories of teacher code switching

Functional Categories	Subcategories	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5
Constructing knowledge	-Discussing content-related issues	7 70%	18 95%	3 75%	19 58%	45 79%
	-Explaining the English language	2 (20%)	1 (5%)	0	7 (21%)	7 (12%)
Managing the class	-Providing task instructions	0	0	0	3 (9%)	0
	-Checking comprehension	0	0	0	1 (3%)	2 3.5%
	-Offering prompts	0	0	0	2 (6%)	1 (1.8%)
Building interpersonal relations	-Giving encouragement	0	0	0	1 (3%)	1 (1.8%)
	-Using humour	1 (10%)	0	1 (25%)	0	1 (1.8%)
Total number of CS instances		10 (100%)	19 (100%)	4 100%	33 (100%)	57 (100%)

4.2.1 Constructing knowledge

This category incorporated episodes involving teacher CS occurrences in which content-related issues and aspects of the English language were discussed.

The data revealed that the teachers reverted to CS when communicating the meaning of business terms or related concepts. Providing the Vietnamese equivalents of business terms following introducing them in English was a feature in the observed lessons and all the teacher participants were seen to engage in this practice. The following example illustrates this concurrent practice (see Appendix 5 for further examples).

Example 9

...You can use these expressions to ask about the company or its line of business, line of business - ngành kinh doanh. Of course we are talking about business context, so these questions are, you know, business-related, not personal. - T1(C1).

In a number of other episodes, the teachers used CS to reinforce the meaning of business terms after providing definitions and contextualisation clues for the terms in English:

Example 10

...Did you hear the word 'contingency'? Something that might possibly happen in the future, usually causing problems, and you have the expression 'contingency plan'. What does that mean in Vietnamese? That means you have a plan to deal with problems that might happen. When you...plan a project, of course you plan the phases in the project and, at the same time, you also think of the risks or problems that might happen. Yes, kế hoạch dự phòng - T2(C1).

The role of teacher CS in reinforcing the meaning of content terminology was also observed in some examples in which the content terminology was defined in English, then restated and amplified in Vietnamese.

Example 11

...How about a pilot project? What does that mean? That means you start a trial project to see if you need any changes or not dự án thử nghiệm, làm thử dự án đó xem coi có thay đổi gì hay không rồi mới làm thật [a pilot project, to carry out a project to consider any changes prior to official commencement] - T5(C1).

Teacher CS also assisted students to reconstruct the meaning of business terms. As observed in the following two episodes from T2 and T3, regardless of their repeated definitions in English coupled with the provision of synonyms and examples, the students indicated they did not understand the meaning of the terms. Therefore, the teachers reverted to Vietnamese to ensure the student comprehension.

Example 12

T2:...Now we go from paragraph to find out the answers...When it comes to the new design for mobile phones, the model that was announced last week by the start-up based in Arizona...now start-up, a small business that has just been started, in Vietnamese we say? A small business that has just been started.
S1: Thành lập [set up].

T2: This is a noun, not a verb, a small business, a small company that has been established.

S2: Khai trương [grand opening].

T2: Công ty mới thành lập [start-up] - T2(C3).

Example 13

T3: ...One of the benefits of alliances is increased market share and if you are the shareholders of the company, what do you expect from the alliance? More profit, more dividends. Do you know dividends? The amount of money you can gain per share from the company, the amount of money the company can send to you every year...based on the number of shares you own. So what does it mean?

S1: Tiền lãi [profit]

S2: Lợi tức [margin]

T3: The exact term should be cổ tức [dividend] - T3(C1).

Teacher CS was also used to extend the students' English repertoire of business terms. Following one listening session about the topic of poverty, T1 provided a term related to this in Vietnamese:

Example 14

...The children need money because they don't live in poverty, but in extreme poverty. How can you translate 'ngưỡng nghèo' [poverty line] into English? You know we have the line of standard and people live under the line of standard. That is considered poor, so what [would] you call that? 'Poverty line'. As we are talking about poverty, so I'd like you to learn this term 'poverty line', the official standard we talked about. If people cross that line, they are no longer poor but they are still under the line, they are still poor... - T1(C3).

In this particular context, teacher CS has a role to play in communicating the specific meaning of business terms or concepts. This finding supports the outcomes of previous studies: teachers provided the mother tongue translations for terms of the discipline in content-based classes (Authur & Martin, 2006; Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher, 2009; Lin, 1996; Mafela, 2009; Martin, 1996), and teachers relied on the L1 to convey the meaning

of unknown vocabulary in language classes (Kraemer, 2006; Liu et al., 2004; Polio & Duff, 1994; White & Storch, 2012).

In some episodes, the teachers' use of CS was instrumental in providing the students with background content knowledge. In this regard, the teachers' practices in this study are similar to those in Setati (2005) who introduced maths concepts in the target language and repeated and further explained those concepts in the mother tongue. One teacher in Probyn's (2009) study also established scientific concepts in the students' mother tongue prior to his detailed explanations in English. In the following extract, T4 introduced one form of financial compensation for a CEO in English and switched to Vietnamese to provide examples and further details of this concept:

Example 15

.... As you can see, offering shares is the best form of incentives for a CEO. *Trở lại thông tin hồi đầu các bạn nghe mấy con số, lương CEO cao nhất là 5 triệu đô. Hôm trước mình nghe về 2 người là Jack và Ann đúng không? Lương của họ 1 năm là 3 triệu mấy đô nhưng ông này là 5 triệu, nhưng con số đó không ăn nhằm gì so với tổng số tiền 1 CEO nhận được khoảng 116 triệu đô 1 năm. Con số đó cho bạn thấy được lương nhỏ thôi nhưng tổng số tiền nhận được là từ cổ phiếu. Nên thay vì trả lương cho CEO người ta dùng giá trị của cổ phiếu để trả thưởng là vào cuối năm. Phần thứ 2 các bạn thấy là người ta dùng cổ phiếu để bù đắp cho CEO. Như vậy thay vì trả lương trực tiếp dùng tiền mặt, người ta dùng cổ phiếu.* [Now getting back to the figures we mentioned earlier, a CEO can get a pay of US\$ 5 million. Recall the pay of Jack and Ann in the previous listening section. Their pay is US\$ 3 million but this CEO gets US \$5 million. Actually, the income of a CEO is US\$ 116 million per year. The two figures indicate that the pay of a CEO is minimal but their income is mainly from shares. So the common practice at most companies is to motivate and compensate CEOs by offering them share values or stock options at the end of each year]. Now, stock options are the best form of compensation - T4(C2).

Similarly, when T1 discussed a Public-Private Partnership model and following his brief introduction to the model, he provided basic information about it in Vietnamese:

Example 16

...With an increasing population and higher demands from society, most governments are facing the pressure of providing good quality infrastructure projects from transport, such as better roads, to education. One good model to meet this demand is a Public-Private Partnership model. *Đây là mô hình nhà nước và khối tư nhân cùng bắt tay nhau làm, về cơ bản hình thức này ra đời cũng nhằm tận dụng nguồn vốn và trí tuệ tiềm năng trong lĩnh vực tư nhân. Thông thường 1 dự án nào có liên kết với tư nhân sẽ hoàn thành đúng hoặc trước thời hạn. Một số ví dụ những công trình ra đời theo hình thức này như mạng lưới giao thông công cộng hay công viên chẳng hạn...* [This is a model which operates through a partnership of a public authority and a private party. Basically, this model makes use of financial resources and know-how in the private sector. Financing a project through a Public-Private Partnership usually allows the project to be completed within or ahead of the time frame. Some examples are public transportation networks or parks] - T1(C2).

CS appeared to be the primary vehicle for T4 to negotiate the meaning of some business expressions with his students. As evident in the following extract, T4 reiterated each formulaic expression that occurs in business in Vietnamese after first introducing it in English:

Example 17

...Look at the expressions that I would like you to learn: 'Are we still in budget?' *Có nghĩa là mình có đủ kinh phí không?*; 'Are you going to meet the deadline?' *Hỏi xem có khả năng làm xong không?*; 'The whole network shut down', *Công việc gần như phá sản*; 'We are behind schedule', *Công việc trễ nãi, chậm tiến độ*; 'We almost caught up'; *Công việc phát triển trở lại một chút*; 'We have to contract a lot of work to meet the deadline' *Mình phải giao việc cho người khác để đạt tiến độ...* - T4(C2).

Not only did the teachers switch to Vietnamese in content-related sessions, they also did so in English language teaching sessions, suggesting CS had a role in the development of the target language. In this study, CS functioned to construct knowledge in both content and target language knowledge, a function that is different from that reported in

other content-based classes in the literature. The dual focus of the Business English classes is a likely explanation for this.

Previous studies reported that teachers use the L1 with their students to provide grammatical input (Gauci & Grima, 2013; Kim & Elder, 2008; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Polio & Duff, 1994; Simon, 2001; White & Storch, 2012). This function was also observed in this study. As illustrated in the following excerpt, following the explanation of "must" for deduction, T5 provided its Vietnamese equivalence. He also incorporated a statement in Vietnamese regarding the use of this grammatical point and clarified the meaning differences in Vietnamese when "must" is used to express deduction and obligation:

Example 18

'He must be sick': usually he is in class but, last night when I saw him, he wasn't feeling very well. So you say 'he must be sick'. So you use 'must' to say that you have evidence, 'evidence', to help you make sure that he is sick. What does 'must' mean? *"Ắt hẳn là. 95% sure. Mình đang nói về sự suy đoán, bắt buộc có bằng chứng chứ không mang nghĩa 'bắt buộc' nữa nha..."*['must' for deduction....we are talking about deduction with evidence, it is distinct from 'must' for obligation] - T5(C2).

In one grammar teaching session, after presenting expressions used for cause-and-effect, T4 translated each grammatical structure into Vietnamese:

Example 19

...now we learn some kinds of language to express cause and effect: 'lead to; cause; is caused by; contribute to; result in; is as a result of; thanks to'. All of these expressions can be used to show cause and effect. Do you know all of these phrases? 'lead to' *dẫn đến hoặc gây ra là*; 'cause', 'contribute to' *góp phần vào*; 'contributed to' *do bởi*; 'result in or bring about, similar to lead to; 'as a result of' - that's a transitional phrase. Now, let's take this example: cars and pollution; what is cause and what is effect? - T4(C3).

The use of CS by the teachers was also prevalent in sessions in which teachers discussed phonetic rules. In the following excerpt, T4 used Vietnamese extensively to demonstrate the pronunciation differences between the two terms:

Example 20

...*chữ* 'precedent' *nếu là danh từ bạn đọc là 'xxx' nhưng nếu là tính từ thì bạn đọc là 'xxy'.* Khi phát âm từ 'precedent' thì bạn nên so sánh với 'president' [If 'precedent' is used as a noun, it should be pronounced as 'xxx'. When it is used as an adjective, it is pronounced as 'xxy'. When you pronounce the word 'precedent', please remember to compare it with 'president'] - T4(C1).

Teacher CS was also seen to play a role in raising the students' awareness of pragmatic aspects of the target language. For example, T2(C2) demonstrated the importance of politeness conventions and email etiquette by drawing on an example in Vietnamese. By using address pronouns "*mày*" and "*tao*" [you/I], which are generally denote strong disrespect except for people with intimate relationships (Luong, 1987), the politeness norms of emails were highlighted:

Example 21

...Sometimes it's difficult for you to get a reply email if there are serious breaches of manners. "*Chẳng hạn có ai gửi em email 'trả tiền tao mày'.* Will you respond to this email? *Em có gửi thư trả lời không? Mai vô lớp em sẽ nói với bạn là em không nhận email nào của mày hết nha.* [Suppose that you have received this email 'give back my money'. Will you respond to this email? Tell the sender that you have not received such an email when you meet him the next day] - T2(C2).

In another example by T1(C1), T1 overtly demonstrated how it was pragmatically appropriate to start a conversation with someone in Vietnamese, but implied the opposite was true in English: "Can I just meet someone for the first time and say 'Hey, *'hôm nay mặc áo đẹp ghê!'* [your top looks so nice!]? It's fine in Vietnamese, but how about in English?...You should say something like 'excuse me, you look so familiar to me. Have we met before?'".

4.2.2 Managing the class

The observational data attest to the fact that switching to Vietnamese is a means by which the teachers provided instructions for tasks, checked that students were following the lesson, and offered prompts or clues to students - a finding echoed by other researchers such as Grim (2010), Inbar-Lourie (2010), Polio and Duff (1994), Marcaro (2001), and Then and Ting (2011), who also reported that teachers used their students' mother tongue for classroom management purposes.

Some of the teachers in this study used Vietnamese to give activity instructions. For example, before a listening session in C2, T4 handed out a listening transcript and said *"phần này nếu các bạn nghe và trả lời câu hỏi liền chắc các bạn làm không nổi nên tôi cho các bạn nghe trước phần này và điền vào chỗ trống để các bạn hiểu"*. [I don't think you can answer the listening questions of this section, so now listen and fill out the blanks of this listening transcript]. Later in this session, when assisting the students to locate the paragraph with information for the listening questions, T4 frequently used the two statements: *"Mấy bạn coi câu hỏi 1...Mấy bạn xem lại ý trong đoạn này..."* [Look at question number 1; Have a look at this paragraph].

There was also evidence that Vietnamese was incorporated into comprehension checks, resonating with the findings of McMillan and Turnbull (2009) and Uys and van Dulm (2011), who reported that teachers used single English words and statements in Setswana to check student comprehension. In this study, T5 frequently asked the students whether they were following his explanations by using this statement *"Hiểu không? Không hiểu hả?"* [Do you get it? Do you understand?]. Following his explanation of some structure patterns, T4(C3) asked the students *"Các bạn biết nghĩa của các từ này hết chưa?"* [Do you know the meanings of the structures?].

The data also revealed that some teachers used Vietnamese for prompting or offering clues. For instance, in a post-listening session, T5 required the students to listen and identify the expressions the speakers used. Although he had provided some clues in English such as "...they receive more orders and, because of this, they have to work more. So what language did they use?". The students failed to answer the question, which then led him to say *"cái cụm từ người ta diễn đạt hệ quả là gì?"* [What expression was used to express the consequence?]. Similarly, in a reading session, after repeating the reading comprehension question a couple of times, when the students did

not provide the answer, T5(C1) said "nhìn cái đoạn T5" [look at the paragraph marked T5].

4.2.3 Building interpersonal relations

Teacher CS for building interpersonal relations was evidenced by some episodes in which the teachers used it to encourage students or to integrate humour into their discourse. Similar to the teachers who used their students' L1 to provide encouragement in the studies by Adendorff (1996), de la Campa and Nassaji (2009), Inbar-Lourie (2010), Lin (1996), and Nagy and Robertson (2009), the teachers in this study used Vietnamese to motivate the students. In one episode, after several unsuccessful attempts at eliciting a response to a listening comprehension question, T4 switched to Vietnamese to encourage his hesitant students: "*thôi mấy bạn ráng học lên mai mới làm CEO*" [come on, work a bit harder, who knows, you may be a CEO one day]. Similarly, awaiting a student's response to his reading comprehension question, T5 provided encouragement with this statement: "*cố lên, sắp về rồi em*" [come on, we are going to complete this section soon.]

In some classes, teachers integrated Vietnamese jokes as part of their teaching or in the reminders they gave to students. For instance, while discussing the full forms of some abbreviations such as "Wifi, GP, GSM and GPRS", T3 imitated the tone of an actress in an advertisement which was popular in the media in Vietnam and said "*các bạn đã cài đặt GPRS chưa?*" [Have you installed GPRS into your mobile phones?], which set the whole class laughing. Similarly, in a reading section, while discussing how hand (mobile) phones are sold under the trademark 'Docomo', T5 showed his hand phone to the class and said "*điện thoại vô thị trường Nhật Bản rất khó. Tui đang xài hàng của Docomo nè, mua hàng xách tay nè*" [It is very demanding for hand phones to be trademarked with Domoco. Here is my hand phone which was unofficially imported from Domoco], and the whole class had a good laugh. Prior to a role play in which T1 reminded his students to use the business protocols he had presented; he used an informal and humorous Vietnamese verb: "...So using the protocol helps us to be safe in business, that's the reason why we need to learn and at this level I'd like you to use the exact terms and exact expressions. I don't want you to *nói lụi*" [produce sentences both grammatically and pragmatically inappropriate] - T1(C1).

The use of Vietnamese in the above examples suggests that the teachers endeavour to bridge the formality gap between the teacher and students, thus demonstrating CS's role in assisting them to build rapport with their students, a finding that compares with those of de la Campa and Nassaji (2009), Gauci and Grima (2013), Polio and Duff (1994) and Uys and van Dulm (2011).

4.3 Summary

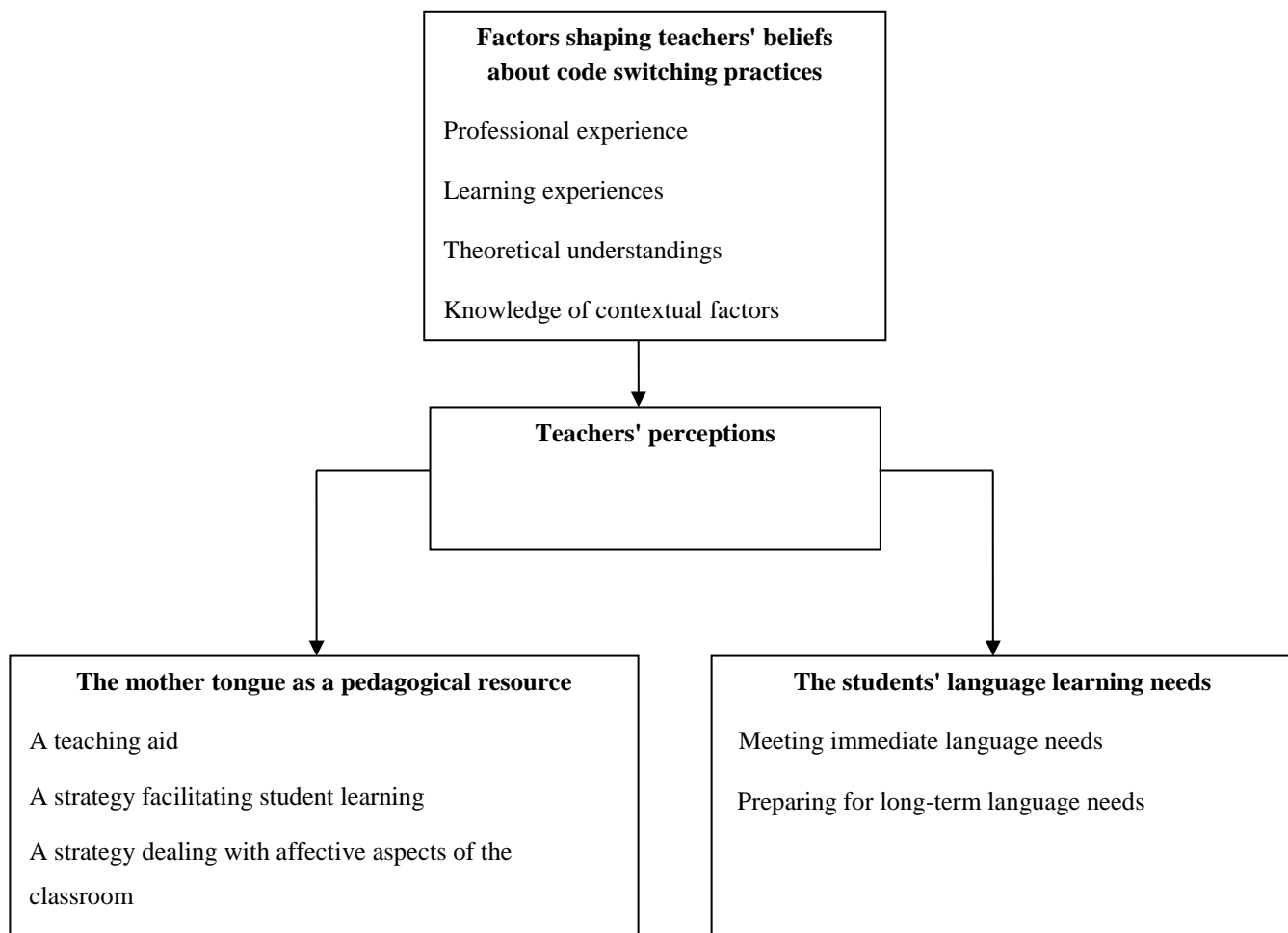
Classroom observation provided a number of examples of teachers' use of CS within the context of content-based Business English classes. The data revealed four patterns of switching: lexical switching, phrasal switching, sentence switching and mixed switching. Of the four CS types, lexical switching was the most prevalent, followed by sentence CS and mixed CS, while phrasal CS occurred the least frequently.

Three functional categories for CS emerged from the data: constructing knowledge, managing the learning environment and building teacher-student relations. The teachers engaged in CS when they were discussing content-related issues and some aspects of the English language, suggesting its role in building content and English language knowledge. CS was also evident in the teachers' discourse when they gave instructions, checked student comprehension and offered prompts, demonstrating its role in the management of the learning environment. Finally, CS contributed to the building of relationships evidenced in episodes that the teachers shifted into Vietnamese to offer encouragement and to integrate humour into their discourse.

Chapter Five: Findings - Stimulated Recall Interviews

This chapter describes the rationales the teachers provided for their CS practices. The first two sections explore the two main rationales that emerged; namely, that the teachers perceived switching to the mother tongue as a pedagogical resource and that CS serves the students' language learning needs. The third section explains factors that appear to shape the teachers' beliefs about CS. Figure 5.1 provides an overview of this chapter.

Figure 5.1: An overview of the teachers' rationale for code switching practices



The five teachers who participated in the study are T1-T5. Given that Vietnamese (their mother tongue-L1) was the teachers' choice of the language to be used in the interviews, their actual words are provided along with the translations in order to retain authenticity and core meanings. It should also be noted that the teachers occasionally shifted into the

target language (L2), that is, English during the interviews. On these occasions, their quotations in English are in quotation marks.

5.1 Teachers' Perceptions of the L1 as a Pedagogical Resource

Contrary to the two first groups of teachers categorised by Macaro (2009) who subscribed to the virtual and maximal position, the teachers in this study held favourable views of the place of CS in their teaching. The teachers described how the L1 plays a significant role in their teaching; for example, it can be used as a teaching aid, as a strategy for promoting student learning, and for supporting the development of a positive affective domain in the classroom.

5.1.1 A teaching aid

The teachers delineated how CS to the L1 acts as a teaching aid supporting students' cognitive processes, specifically the development of content and target language knowledge. Developing understanding was reported as the prime reason prompting teachers to CS. T2 and T3, for example, saw the ultimate objective of their teaching as ensuring student comprehension (*vì mục đích cuối cùng là làm sinh viên hiểu*) and identified CS to the L1 as a way to help them achieve this objective.

At the heart of most of the teachers' CS was a concern for improving the students' comprehension of business terms and developing their understanding of related concepts. T2 said that it was critical for the students to obtain a good understanding of business concepts because failing to comprehend a concept when it was first presented would lead to comprehension difficulties with other concepts in the future and switching to the L1 to translate business terms or explain concepts ensured student understanding (*Tôi có khuynh hướng dùng tiếng Việt khi dạy từ vựng business hoặc giải thích những khái niệm để đảm bảo là các em hiểu*). T4 commented that business terms must be accompanied by translations into the L1 to aid the students' comprehension (*có những thuật ngữ terms mình phải cho tiếng Việt để các em hiểu*). More emphatically, T1 said that his students could only deepen their comprehension of business terms or concepts when his explanations in the L2 were reinforced by their presentation in the L1. T5 concurred and highlighted the problem with conceptually dense reading texts. In the following comment, he described how he initially explained those texts in the L2 and reinforced the reading passages in the L1:

Dạy Business English có những cái khái niệm khó hiểu đặc biệt là khi dạy bài đọc hiểu ở trình độ upper trình độ nó khó muốn chết luôn chị ơi cho nên tôi đầu tiên giải thích tiếng Anh rồi 1 lát nói tiếng Việt để sinh viên hiểu nắm bắt rõ hơn.

[Making business concepts accessible to the students is a real challenge, particularly those concepts in reading texts in upper-intermediate level. Thus, I illustrate the concepts in English and repeat them in Vietnamese to make them comprehensible.]

T4 switched to the L1 to scaffold the students' comprehension of listening transcripts. His following comments illustrate this point:

Trong bài này người đọc không dùng từ ngữ giống câu hỏi mà lại paraphrase thông tin đó...nói chung khái niệm bài nghe này khá khó....tôi dùng tiếng Việt vì độ khó của bài nghe này...nếu tôi biết khó tôi dùng tiếng Việt để sinh viên nắm cái plot...phần này có liên quan đến phần 1 của bài nghe...vậy nên tiếng Việt trong trường hợp này để giúp sinh viên hiểu phần transcript.

[The concepts in this listening section are really challenging, and are related to previous part of this exercise. To complicate the issue, the wording of the comprehension questions and recording is different. Thus, I shifted into Vietnamese in order to assist the students to grasp the core message of the transcript.]

These findings lend support to those in the literature which show that teachers perceive CS in a positive light, as a way to support student comprehension of content knowledge. For instance, teachers in content-based classrooms in a variety of contexts emphasise the importance of student comprehension of subject matter and propose that student understanding of key subject terms or concepts is considerably promoted when teacher switches to the L1 for reinforcement or explanation (Flowerdew et al., 1998; Mafela, 2009; Probyn, 2001; Setati, 1998).

CS to the L1 is also perceived by most teachers in this study to assist their teaching because it is useful for clarification, a point that is in line with the teachers in the studies by Flowerdew et al. (1998) and Mafela (2009). The teachers in this study described how CS to the L1 provided the students with explanations that helped them appreciate the

differences between seemingly similar business terms that have varied meanings in different contexts. T5 gave an example: "team morale" and "team spirit" confused the students; thus, he provided L2 definitions and their L1 counterparts to assist students to better distinguish between the two terms. T1 described how he used CS to the L1 to help the students differentiate between such terms as "seasonal work" and "casual work" and commented that it is good practice for teachers to provide students with L1 translations of all those business terms that are widely used in Vietnam. T1 and T2 justified their use of CS to the L1 for the two terms "code of conduct" and "capital punishment" as lessening student confusion: T1 commented that students might confuse the word "code" with "law", while its L1 counterpart, "*quy tắc ứng xử*" [code of conduct] is quite transparent in its meaning. T2 reported that, without CS to the L1, students might associate the word "capital" in the term "capital punishment" with "money". T3 said that the Vietnamese equivalent of the term "cash flow" is comprehensible, as it is commonly used in the mass media, yet its definition in the L2 is not and may lead to misunderstanding. T2 claimed the use of CS for elaboration is justified for some context-specific business terms, reporting that although in the observed lessons she had repeatedly defined and illustrated the term "specification" in the L2, the students still gave her the Vietnamese equivalent, which was not appropriate to the context of the text. This experience strengthened her belief in the need to use CS in order to assist the students to better differentiate between similar terms.

However, while teachers of content-based lessons in other studies expressed their concern about student understanding of disciplinary terms as a reason for CS (Flowerdew et al., 1998; Mafela, 2009; Martin, 1996; Probyn, 2001), the teachers in this study believed their use of CS also assisted student comprehension of L2 knowledge. In this regard, these teachers' viewpoint is in line with those of second-language teachers in a number of other studies who felt that their teaching of English grammar warrants the complementary use of the L1 (Bateman, 2008; Crawford, 2004; Gauci & Grima, 2013; Macaro, 2001). T5 emphasised the role of CS in English grammar teaching. He said that it is mandatory for him to CS to the L1 to differentiate "might not, may not and could not have done" so that any confusion on the part of the students is minimised, because "could not have done" expresses impossibility while the other two do not. T5 commented that some grammatical points are best differentiated by means of clarification in the L1. To exemplify this, he stated that the students associate "must"

with obligation, but "must have done" has a different meaning, and by using the L1 he could draw a distinction between the two grammatical points. His following comments provided an insight into this:

Thường sinh viên thật sự học đến bài này, sinh viên vẫn hiểu chữ must ở đây là obligation nhưng trong bài hôm nay nó là deduction thì suy đoán mức độ certainty bao nhiêu phần trăm. Tôi dùng chữ "ắt hẳn là" để sinh viên hình dung được sự khác biệt về nghĩa

[I reckon the students think "must" is used to express obligation although they are in upper-intermediate level. However, in today's lesson, "must" is used to make deductions or guesses with some levels of certainty. The term "ắt hẳn là" [must have done] can help them figure out the difference in meaning.]

T4's rationale for his switch to the L1 for grammar teaching echoed that of T5, adding that his focus in English grammar teaching is on improving the students' abilities to use it rather than explaining linguistically specific terms.

Aside from English language structures, T4 engaged in CS to help the students grasp the phonetic rules. He commented that the students would give him a blank stare indicating incomprehension (*gật gù ngó ra*) if he used the L2 only to explain the pronunciation of the auxiliary verb "can" in its strong and weak forms and to differentiate the stress rules on "precedent" as a noun and as an adjective. Thus, in his view, CS made his explanation of the pronunciation of these words more comprehensible.

Some teachers wanted to ensure that students of all language proficiency levels and content background could follow their class. Thus, they described the incorporation of CS to the L1 as a resource that accommodated their students' language capabilities and level of content knowledge. This was reflected in their discussion about the relationship between their perceptions of the students' linguistic abilities and content knowledge and their decisions to CS. T1 explained that he uses some Vietnamese in his speech in the L2, as the students' level of L2 proficiency is not sufficiently developed to use only the L2 (*tôi vẫn sử dụng tiếng Việt vì mặt bằng chung trình độ tiếng Anh thấp*). This rationale resonated with that of T5, who stated that his reason for CS was the students' current level of proficiency in the L2. He also described how he determined the

students' language capabilities and adjusted his use of the L2 to accommodate these capabilities:

Thông thường đầu khóa tôi có 1 bài test nhỏ để xem trình độ các em đến đâu. Thông thường đầu khóa tôi có 1 bài test nhỏ để xem trình độ các em đến đâu. Tôi cũng hỏi thăm khóa trước giáo viên sử dụng tiếng Anh thế nào để mình điều chỉnh cho thích hợp chứ mình thay đổi bất ngờ quá sẽ không tốt. Ví dụ nếu các bạn nói học %60 tiếng Việt, %40 tiếng Anh thì mình có thể nói cái đó tiếng Anh nó hơi ít giờ thì tôi đề nghị sẽ đổi ngược lại %60 tiếng Anh %40 tiếng Việt chẳng hạn.

[I always use a mini-test at the beginning of each course to learn about my students' language competence. I also refer to the students' learning experience in previous courses to adapt my English use because they might find it hard to deal with sudden changes in their teacher's use of English. For example, I would speak 60% English and 40% Vietnamese if their teacher in previous course spoke 40% English and 60% Vietnamese.]

Where teachers in this study had concerns about their students' language capabilities, they believed that CS to the L1 was useful in bridging the students' language gaps. In doing so, they mirrored the findings of several studies that have reached the same conclusion (Bateman, 2008; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Flowerdew et al., 1998; Gauci & Grima 2013; Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2001).

In addition to taking into account her students' language competence, T2's motive for CS involved her concerns about their content knowledge. She said that if she exclusively speaks in the L2, only students with a good command of the L2 who regularly update their business knowledge can follow her class, while those students who are struggling linguistically and who also have limited business knowledge have comprehension problems. Therefore, she overcomes her students' limited knowledge of the content by supplying background concepts in the L1 prior to her class. This point is illustrated in the following comment:

Cái khó của tôi khi dạy môn này là kiến thức nền về business các em không có nên nhiều khi tôi phải nói lòng vòng bổ sung trước đó rồi mới dạy tiếp được.

[One of the challenges when teaching this unit is that the students' background knowledge of business is limited, so I always provide the students with the gist of business concepts in Vietnamese and continue my explanations in the L2.]

T1 briefed his students using their L1 to provide them with a foundational understanding of a concept prior to explaining it in greater detail in the L2. This finding parallels the reason provided by the Spanish teachers teaching English to Spanish immigrant children in Ramos' (2005) study, who supported the practice of CS to the L1 in order to provide an overview of the lesson. The teachers' use of CS for accommodation purposes can be explained based on the contextual factor of this research site: the students' English proficiency varies resulting from their different English learning backgrounds.

In addition to aiding comprehension, CS to the L1 was believed to be useful for dealing with the management of the class, particularly in relation to the pace and timing of what occurs in the lessons. T3 commented that it is time-consuming to explain complicated business terms, such as "dividend" in the L2, whereas she needs only two words to convey its meaning in the L1. T1 said that CS to the L1 is more effective when he is explaining the meaning of business terms, particularly when working within the prescribed class time limits. T2 explained that she used CS to save time within a tight teaching time frame, especially when her other attempts to develop understanding in the L2 had been futile. Similarly, switching to the L1 to give complicated and lengthy procedural instructions about classroom activities was found by T1 to be effective, as it freed up considerable class time to spend on practising the L2. T4 also reported that he shifted into the L1 to give procedural instructions; his rationale being that it allowed for greater consistency in his language use over the course of his teaching. This finding confirms the reasons for CS provided by the teachers in studies by Bateman (2008), Canagarajah (1995), Kim and Elder (2008), and Wilkerson (2008).

Not only is CS to the L1 perceived to facilitate comprehension, some of the teachers also suggested that it is a useful technique for checking students' comprehension. T3 recounted her use of the question "What is the L1 equivalent?" to assure herself of her students' comprehension. Similarly, T2 claimed that her students' utterances or

responses in the L1 can indicate that they have comprehended her class and, more specifically, the business terminology she used. She commented:

Khi yêu cầu sinh viên cho nghĩa tiếng Việt 1 số thuật ngữ nào đó thường tôi có chủ ý. Tôi muốn confirm xem liệu với cách giải thích của mình các em có hiểu không.

[After explaining business terms in English, I purposely require my students to provide Vietnamese labels for those terms in order to confirm that they have understood my explanations.]

Further, use of CS is seen as a means of reinforcing and highlighting salient teaching points. T4 described his preference for CS for revision purposes, requiring students to provide the L1 equivalents of two terms he used in the previous lessons. T5 also used CS for revision purposes, as well as outlining the various phases of a project, in which he used CS as a way to highlight to his students those aspects to which they needed to pay most attention. He believed that the students register important information when it is provided in the L1.

These findings coincide with those of previous research showing that CS to the L1 is deemed a more efficient way of communicating instructions than using the L2 alone (Al-Nofaie, 2010; Canagarajah, 1995; Bateman, 2008; Kim & Elder, 2008; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Song & Andrew 2009). Other studies have described teacher beliefs about the role of CS in increasing productivity and providing opportunities for practising the L2 (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009); acting as a vehicle for checking comprehension and focusing students' attention (Cheng, 2013; Liu et al., 2004; Probyn, 2001); and, emphasising the main points of a lesson (Probyn, 2001; Ramos, 2005).

5.1.2 Facilitating student learning

It was the perception of some teachers that their use of CS assisted students to relate their learning to their pre-existing knowledge. T5, for example, stated that he used the L1 following his explanations of business terms in the L2, so that the students could make connections with their existing knowledge. He added that the practice of making the link between the L2 and L1 is imperative, as it facilitates the students' learning of Business English. T4 explained that he prefers to provide the students with business phrases in the L1 in order that they learn new terms based on something familiar.

Mirroring the views expressed by the teachers studied by Inbar-Lourie (2010) and McMillan and Turnbull (2009), T3 commented that it was beneficial for student learning to draw on the L1 to enable connections to be made between the L2 and L1, as students may have pre-existing conceptual knowledge in their L1 which can be used in their learning of new concepts.

Similarly, when eliciting topics from his students that would be appropriate to use to start a conversation with a stranger at a networking event in Vietnam, T1 reformulated into the L1 the two expressions "How are you?" and "Hi Phi, your top looks nice". T1 held the view that the L1 facilitates the students' connection with Vietnamese culture and forces them to consider whether Vietnamese people actually use those expressions as ice-breakers:

Nhiều khi mình nói ra tiếng Việt sẽ giúp các em hình dung xem liệu trong ngữ cảnh đó có thích hợp không, người Việt có thực sự dùng expressions đó không.

[On a number of occasions, utterances in Vietnamese can help students picture themselves in the scene and think twice whether Vietnamese people use those expressions to start a conversation with someone.]

Some teachers contended that students are better able to retain language and content knowledge when their explanations in the L2 are reinforced in the L1. For instance, both T3 and T5 reported shifting into the L1 to assist the students to retain the meaning of business terms. T5 believed that it was hard for the students to retrieve the meanings of business terms given the number of such terms provided in each teaching session and that anything that assisted retrieval, such as CS, was beneficial. T2 said that after her explanations in the L2, she purposely asked students to translate the terms she had used into L1 equivalents, as she believed this practice can help the students brainstorm and subsequently recollect the terms. In case their attempts to retrieve the meanings of business terms failed, her support in the L1 significantly increased their recollection. T4 added that he switches to the L1 to draw on local examples with which students were familiar to illustrate business concepts, as he believed this practice fostered the students' deep learning of both content and language knowledge, a finding that is in line with one teacher's conviction in Flowerdew et al.'s (1998) investigation.

5.1.3 Dealing with affective aspects of the classroom

Teachers believed that CS to the L1 created a favourable affective environment for students. Some teachers mentioned that they used CS to encourage positive feelings amongst the students and to create a relaxed classroom atmosphere, claiming that students' frustration, distress, pressure, shock or embarrassment was reduced by CS to the L1. T2 believed that using the L2 exclusively in teaching would "discourage or frustrate" her students, so she does not use the L2 predominantly in her teaching, nor does she forbid her students from using the L1. T1 described the stress students experienced when learning through the medium of an undeveloped language (if teachers spoke only the L2 in a four-period class); thus, he perceived that CS to the L1 created a level of comfort for students which enabled them to engage with the lesson content, although this may be at the expense of learning the L2. T4 remarked that his students were "shocked" to experience a predominant L2 approach, mostly because their previous teachers had mostly used the L1. T3 reported an agreement she had with her students, whereby they could approach her at break time for any explanations in the L1, if necessary. She explained that this agreement spared students the embarrassment of requesting the L1 in class, explaining that some students needed explanations in the L1, but were not comfortable to raise questions in class because they feared they were the only ones who did not understand the points made in the L2.

Teachers in previous studies have expressed the belief that their CS practices were conducive to keeping students interested and motivated (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Gauci & Grima, 2013; Kim & Elder, 2008). These findings are echoed in the current study: the teachers believed that their students' interest in learning was maintained through their CS. T4 adjusted the amount of the L2 and L1 he used to arouse his students' interest in learning, claiming that this practice was significant, as once students' interest in learning was piqued, their self-study was encouraged. T5 expressed a similar belief, arguing that teachers struck a balance in their use of the L2 and L1 in such content-based business classes in order to motivate students' autonomous learning:

Tôi nghĩ giáo viên nên dùng tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt ở mức độ nào đó để giúp sinh viên tự tìm tòi hơn.

[I think teachers should use English and Vietnamese to some extent as it can encourage student autonomy.]

In this study, the beliefs of teachers were compatible with those in a number of other studies who believed that CS to L1 is a mechanism for building rapport with students (Bateman, 2008; Cheng, 2013; Chitera, 2009; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Flowerdew et al., 1998), a way to create an enjoyable learning environment and a means of enabling teachers to socialise with students (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Flowerdew et al., 1998). The teachers' other arguments in favour of CS centred on its importance in contributing to the creation of a relaxed classroom atmosphere, which in turn helps them build rapport with their students. Most teachers underscored the importance of maintaining an enjoyable classroom climate, which they believed can be created by the use of jokes in the L1. T1 and T4, for example, both said that they embedded some Vietnamese jokes in their teaching, noting that these are culturally-bound and are interpreted differently from one culture to another. T4 reported that on some occasions he tried telling funny stories to become closer to his students, but when he did so in the L2 he found he was the only one who laughed. T2's rationale for telling jokes in the L1 is that it created a positive learning environment and lessened the social distance between her and her students. In much the same way, T3 claimed she injected humour into her class and her interactions with the students are in the L1 in order to relieve classroom tension and foster the relationship with her students.

5.2 Teachers' Perceptions of Students' Language Needs

Teachers asserted that students have current and long-term language needs and these needs underpinned their beliefs about their CS practices.

5.2.1 Meeting students' current language needs

Teachers firmly believed that they must respond to the students' learning needs. T2 stated she believed that her students are more satisfied when they were provided with business terms in the L1, commenting that the students appeared pleased and/or satisfied when she explained things, such as different types of companies in the L2 and then named each company type in the L1:

Chẳng hạn trong bài số 1, khi dạy về các loại hình công ty các em hiểu cấu trúc nhưng không biết thể loại các công ty trong tiếng Việt gọi là gì, khi tôi cho tiếng Việt tương ứng, tôi nhận ra các em rất hài lòng, gật gù.

[For example, in unit 1 after I explained different types of businesses in English and labelled each in Vietnamese, I noticed that students were very happy, nodding their heads indicating their understanding.]

This teacher reported using CS to address students' expectations based on her assessment of those expectations: shifting into the L1 to reinforce or translate business terms. T5 stated during his class, particularly when he was elaborating on business terms, he felt the students expect to be supplied with L1 translations. He explained that he used the L1 because that was what he thought students wanted:

Khi dạy phần từ vựng tôi cảm thấy sinh viên đều mong muốn có được thuật ngữ bằng tiếng Việt.

[I have a gut feeling that the students expect corresponding terms in Vietnamese for every business term explained in English.]

Other teachers explained their shift into the L1 as a direct response to the students' requests for translations. T2, T3 and T5 reported that, despite repeated explanations and examples in the L2, they engaged in CS to the L1 when students asked for it, because students claimed they could not follow the class otherwise.

5.2.2 Preparing for students' long-term language needs

Longer-term language needs were frequently raised by the teachers to explain their CS into the L1 in their class. Most teachers indicated that it was their perception that students definitely needed L1 equivalents for their future work. T1 stated that, whenever he taught a business term, he liked the students to swiftly switch that term to the L1 so that they understood and applied these terms to their future careers. T3 said that providing students with an L1 translation of business terms commonly used in Vietnam was necessary for students who would enter the job market in the next few years. Specifically, T3 explained that the students might say something like "*mời anh chị nhận tiền lãi từ cổ phần*" [you are kindly invited to receive the interest from your shares], an uncommon expression in Vietnamese. She, therefore, relies on the L2 to explain the term "dividend" and her repetition of the lexical item "dividend" in the L1 as "*cổ tức* "

to prepare her students for their prospective workplace needs (if they are asked to compose a letter to shareholders). Although T5 did not give specific examples of how his students will need the L1 for their future careers in business, he maintained that they will not exclusively use the L2 in the future, as most will be working in their home country and students need to know business terms in the L1 (*chẳng lẽ sinh viên chỉ dùng tiếng Anh không lúc đi làm?*).

Some teachers expressed the view that CS to the L1 is a technique they employed to enlarge students' linguistic repertoire which they may then use in other studies, such as subsequent courses of the Business English and the Interpreting-Translation units. T1 reported that discussion on topics of non-Business themes expanded students' vocabulary (asking them to provide the L2 equivalents of the lexical item "*ngưỡng nghèo*" [poverty line]) and had the long term benefit of allowing the students to accumulate a considerable vocabulary, in particular lexical items relevant to their study in the Interpreting-Translation unit. T2 asserted that she tries to cultivate the students' vocabulary (*có thiên hướng trau dồi vốn từ cho các em*), particularly high-frequency vocabulary available in the mass media or in workplace settings, so they can use it in their future study. T2 repeatedly attributed the need to learn L1 equivalents of L2 business terms. T3 said that when she switched to the L1 equivalent (of terms such as "dividend"), she does so to inform the students who might have known this in the L1 but not in its L2 form, a view that was also discussed by one teacher in McMillan and Turnbull's (2009) study.

Some teachers believed that their CS to the L1 prepares students for future language use. T1 stated that his CS to the L1 for business terms was essential because this practice assisted students to use the terms accurately and students reduced the mistakes they made in their translation tasks:

Việc sử dụng tiếng Việt trong các lớp Business English như thế này là cần thiết...một khi sinh viên nắm được tiếng Việt của những thuật ngữ chuyên ngành sẽ giúp các em sử dụng thuật ngữ đó chính xác...chẳng hạn như trong các bài dịch các em dịch khỏi sai.

[It is essential for teachers in such Business English classes to switch into Vietnamese for explaining or reinforcing business terms. This can promote students' deep understanding of business terms which, in turn,

develops accuracy in L2 production so errors in translation or interpreting can be reduced.]

Consistent with two teachers in Kim and Elder's (2008) study, who reported the use of the students' L1 in response to the need to prepare their students for their upcoming translation tasks, T1's perceptions of learners' language needs appeared to exert a strong influence on his choice of linguistic code. He said that if the students were not supplied with thorough explanations and L1 equivalents for some terms such as "seasonal work, casual work, piece work and out work", they would not be able to perform a translation task involving those terms in the future. If students were required to translate these terms from the L2 into the L1, their wording in the L1 may not be appropriate or they may be unable to select the proper vocabulary in the L2. T4 outlined how his CS use for certain business phrases assisted students to use these phrases properly in the L2. He also believed that once phonetic rules were explained in the L1, his students had a deeper understanding of them and were able to avoid some common mispronunciation errors - for example, when his students were made aware of how to pronounce weak and strong sounds, they would be better able to converse with and comprehend people in the workplace:

Tôi muốn sinh viên ý thức trước phần phát âm để sau này khi nói chuyện hoặc nghe người khác nói nó còn hiểu.

[I would like to raise the students' awareness of pronunciation issues so that they can be well-prepared for their conversations in their future workplace settings.]

5.3 Factors Shaping Teachers' Beliefs about Code Switching Practices

All the participating teachers stated that they maximised their use of the L2 as the medium of instruction on the grounds that the students' exposure to the L2 would otherwise be quite limited. The teachers discussed their awareness of the need to use the L2 and their attempts to minimise their use of CS as illustrated in the following comments:

T5: ...Tôi ý thức sinh viên cần cọ xát với tiếng Anh càng nhiều càng tốt nên tôi luôn giải thích bằng tiếng Anh rồi sau đó mới dùng tiếng Việt.

[I am well aware that students need to be exposed to as much English as possible, therefore, prior to providing the L1 equivalents, I explained business concepts in English in the contexts.]

T4: ...Tôi đã xác định target language thì phải ưu tiên và dùng quá nhiều tiếng Việt sẽ ảnh hưởng đến việc học tiếng Anh. Chẳng hạn sau này nó [sinh viên] chỉ hiểu khái niệm đó bằng tiếng Việt nhưng lại không diễn giải bằng tiếng Anh được.

[Using the target language is my priority and I am conscious that extensive use of Vietnamese adversely affects students' English learning. They might have difficulties making themselves understood in English the concepts of which they have a good understanding.]

However, they also felt the need to switch to the L1 in specific circumstances. These teachers defended the use of the L1 in instruction and expressed the strong belief that it is not essential to use the L2 exclusively and that doing so is undesirable and pedagogically nondefensible. It is clear that they support CS as part of their teaching practice. T1 remarked that the exclusive use of the L2 is not necessary and emphasised the need for CS to the L1 in Business English classes. Similarly, but more emphatically, both T3 and T5 said that it is mandatory to use the L1 in some instances when teaching Business English. T3 believed:

Tôi không quan niệm cứ phải thao bất tuyệt bằng tiếng Anh mọi lúc mọi nơi thì mới là người ta đây tỏ ra biết L2. Khi dạy tiếng Anh, không có vấn đề gì phải dùng tiếng Anh tuyệt đối và tránh tiếng Việt.

[I do not think teachers have to prove themselves to be knowledgeable about English by speaking exclusively in English. It is not necessary to ideologically preclude Vietnamese in English teaching.]

The data indicates that the teachers explicitly advocated the use of the L1, as it has particular value in their teaching. T2 said that, for her, the L1 is a complementary instructional strategy. Four other teachers claimed that the L1 is a valuable instructional resource. The data reveals that their beliefs about CS practices have been shaped by multiple elements, including their previous professional experience, their prior experience as language learners, their understanding of theories of language learning and teaching and their knowledge of contextual factors.

5.3.1 Previous professional experience

Teaching experience in other units or programs has reinforced the belief of some teachers of the need to use both the L1 and L2. Both T1 and T2 reported they taught Interpreting-Translation and Business English units concurrently, which prompted them to CS to the L1. These two teachers observed that students can competently apply business terms in their Interpreting- Translation tasks once they are provided with the L1 equivalents. T2 gave an example of a student in the Interpreting-Translation unit asking her for the L2 equivalent of the term "*dự án khả thi*" [a feasible project], a high-frequency term in the Business English unit, to complete a translation task. T1 stressed the need to use the L1 on the basis of his teaching experience:

Vì tôi cũng đang dạy 1 số lớp biên phiên dịch nên nhận ra rằng một khi sinh viên nắm được tiếng Việt của những thuật ngữ chuyên ngành hoặc những thuật ngữ phổ biến sẽ giúp các em sử dụng vốn từ 1 cách chính xác ở các lớp này.

[I'm currently teaching an Interpreting-Translation unit which sheds light for me that providing the students with business terms in Vietnamese or widely used terms in everyday English will help them use the terms properly in this class.]

The strong belief that the use of the L1 in teaching is warranted was strengthened by some teachers' previous unsuccessful experience of predominantly using the L2 in instruction. T2 recalled that she had attempted to exclusively teach in the L2, but noticed the students' boredom or disinterest, which encouraged her to switch to the L1. Similarly, T4 reported doing a listening comprehension lesson in which he spoke entirely in the L2 and the students could not complete all the tasks, indicating to him that his teaching was not successful. Based on this experience, when he undertook a second lesson with the same level, he adjusted his teaching strategies to include the use of CS to the L1 to explain core concepts in the listening transcript. T4 also recounted his experience with an L2-only policy in a training course, an approach which lasted a very short time due to the students' comprehension difficulties. He further spoke of his university's plan to adopt a L2-only policy - one that did not come into effect due to perceived concerns about the comprehension capacity of the students. These experiences confirmed his belief about the need to switch to the L1 in his teaching.

The teachers' descriptions indicated that their professional experience has informed the beliefs they hold about the value of CS in their pedagogy. These findings reflect the view in the literature that a teacher's beliefs about teaching and learning a language are generated during the teaching process (Borg, 1999; Breen et al., 2001; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Xu, 2012), based on the "knowledge and information gained from their trial and error" (Crookes & Arakaki, 1999, p.16). On the basis of classroom experience, one teacher in Borg's (1999) study reported his understanding of the students' need for, and comfort with, explicit talk about L2 grammar, while a teacher in Phipps and Borg's study (2009) believed in the theoretical value of group work in grammar teaching. However, students' negative responses to his organisation of grammar teaching led him to use teacher-student interaction instead. Some teachers in Brazilian ELT schools in Corcoran's (2008, p.157) study believed "there is a place for L1 use" as a result of their experience working with beginner learners, as well as observing the difficulties in using the L2 only. Prior to their practicum, some pre-service teachers in an investigation by Turnbull and Lamoureux (2001) perceived that the optimal approach for language teaching was the use of L2 only. However, following their practicum, many of them had come to accept the value of CS to the L1 for instructional purposes, similar to the teachers in the current study.

5.3.2 Prior experience as language learners

Their own prior experience as language learners played a critical part in shaping their perceptions about CS to the L1 in their teaching. Some told of the comprehension problems they had encountered as language learners and how this informed their belief that CS can be used to overcome this. For three teachers, their own learning experience was the basis for them anticipating their students' learning difficulties. T5 revealed that his experience of learning the L2 and his need for L1 translations to enhance his comprehension underpinned his decision to CS. T3 said that she used to have comprehension difficulties when her teacher predominantly used the L2, but the problems were resolved when the explanations were repeated in the L1. T3 added that from her experience as a teacher who was in the process of learning Business English herself, she needed to know specific modes of expressions for content terms in the L1, and believed that the students shared this need. T4 recounted his negative language learning experience in upper secondary school when his teacher used the L2 only for the exposition of phonetic rules involving a range of linguistic terms, which remained

beyond his comprehension at that stage. These teachers' negative experience with English-only helped them to empathise with their students and pre-empt a similar experience: "understandings that come through shared life experience and cultural background" are important (Auerbach, 1993, p.28).

These findings indicate that the teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching and their use of the L1 seem to be related to their own school English language learning experiences. Thus, their "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975, as cited in Borg, 2006) represents the basis upon which they chose to use CS for some aspects of their teaching. These findings support other studies which show that teachers' prior language learning experience, either positive or negative, has a significant influence on their beliefs about how a language should be learnt (Bailey et al., 1996; Borg, 2003; Breen et al., 1998; Ellis, 2006; Farewell, 1999; Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1994; Macaro, 2001; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Numrich, 1996; Richards & Pennington, 1998). In Farewell's (1999) study, based on their own experiences as learners, some pre-service teachers decided to adopt an inductive teaching approach to grammar instead of a deductive one, which they believed lead to student passivity. In other studies, teachers reported that they avoided interrupting their students' flow of speech to provide correction because of the negative experiences they had being 'hyper-corrected' (Golombek, 1998; Numrich, 1996). In contrast, Numrich (1996) reports in his study one teacher consciously incorporating a cultural component into her language teaching, as she found this to be an enjoyable part of her own learning experience. Some teachers in a study by Breen et al. (1998), with previous experience of learning a language other than English appeared to understand the anxiety their students might experience. Thus, these teachers adopted practices to reduce their students' anxiety level such as encouraging them to take risks in using English or organising group work activities. Breen et al. also described how one teacher who experienced the need to understand everything to learn a second language reported her endeavour to render her input comprehensible to every student in her class. Teachers who had exposure to CS and had positive learning experience from this practice expressed a positive attitude toward its value in teaching (Macaro, 2001; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009).

In summary, the teachers' descriptions of the value they attached to CS in language pedagogy indicated that their experience as language learners and as teachers had convinced them of its value, and this then shaped how they used the L1 - their

experience was an important contributor to their beliefs about CS, and thereby their CS practices.

5.3.3 An understanding of theories of language learning and teaching

Theories of language learning and teaching appear to have had an impact on one teacher's beliefs about the value of L1. T5 referred to Krashen's (1985) theory of comprehensible input and expressed his support for it. As he put it, among the several ways to make the teachers' input comprehensible was a switch to the L1 in order to create lessons at appropriate levels of difficulty:

Tôi rất thích ông Krashen, ông đưa ra thuyết comprehensible input, thuyết đó tức là không nên cung cấp cái gì quá khó đối với sinh viên vì mục đích comprehension. Mình chỉ nên cung cấp 1 cái gì đó hơi challenging thôi và tận dụng nhiều cách để giúp sinh viên hiểu nên tôi nghĩ thỉnh thoảng dùng tiếng Việt cũng là một cách.

[I really like Krashen who developed the comprehensible input hypothesis which means that learners should not be provided with input beyond their comprehension level. The input provided by teachers should be slightly challenging and it is advisable that teachers use a range of strategies including occasional L1 use to facilitate learner comprehension.]

5.3.4 Knowledge of contextual factors

The teachers' knowledge of the context also played an important role in moulding their beliefs about CS in their teaching. Their knowledge of the institution's training orientation affected their beliefs about the role of CS in their instruction. T2 explained:

Trong bài giảng hôm nay tôi chủ đích dùng tiếng Việt để cho nghĩa tương ứng một số từ mà có thể xuất hiện ở môn dịch; tôi biết trong chương trình học các em có học môn biên phiên dịch.

[In today's lesson I consciously used the L1 for some particular business terms which the students will most likely to come across in the Interpreting-Translation unit. I am aware that the students will undertake the Interpreting-Translation unit as required in the training program.]

For T1, the need to use CS to aid student learning of business terms relevant to the Interpreting-Translation units was seen even more pressing:

Thời gian này tôi biết các em đang học môn Biên Phiên Dịch nên việc sử dụng tiếng Việt là cần thiết để các em ứng dụng vào môn học này hoặc sau này đi làm.

[I know that the students are doing Translation-Interpreting unit; thus, my use of the L1 is useful for their study of this unit or when they enter the job market.]

The comments above show that the objectives of the training program may have influenced these teachers' beliefs about the need to use CS. This finding is compatible with Burns' (1996) study: the teacher's heightened awareness of institutional norms influenced their beliefs and thereby their teaching practices.

The questionnaire-based student evaluation of teacher performance also plays a part in forming teacher beliefs about CS. The imposts of teacher evaluation strengthened T2's belief about the need to use CS - to deflect any possible negative feedback on her performance. The students might complain that she is not devoted or her classes were not comprehensible (*Trong thực tế tôi bị khổng chế bởi feedback từ phía sinh viên. Tôi e ngại sinh viên có thể phàn nàn giáo viên dạy khó hiểu hoặc không nhiệt tình chăm* *hạn*).

5.4 Summary

This chapter has provided a description of the teachers' rationales for using CS as part of their pedagogy. The data suggested that the teachers' perceptions of CS to the L1 as a pedagogical resource and their perceptions of the students' immediate and longer-term language needs have prompted them to use it in their teaching.

As a pedagogical resource, the teachers saw CS to the L1 playing a key role in facilitating the students' comprehension of both content knowledge and the target language. They believed the use of the L1 accommodates the students' current level of language competence and content knowledge. They also expressed positive opinions about the role that CS plays in stimulating students' schematic language and content knowledge, encouraging retention and interest in learning and promoting a positive affective environment in the classroom. The teachers perceived that their use of CS to

the L1 helps prepare students for their study in subsequent courses and addresses functional needs so that students can cope with English language use outside the classroom.

Several factors shaped the teachers' perceptions of their CS practices, including their accumulated teaching experience, previous experience as language learners, theoretical understanding of language teaching and learning, and their knowledge of the teaching context.

Chapter Six: Findings - Focus Group Sessions

This chapter reports the students' perceptions of teacher CS practices, describing the three main categories that emerged from the data analysis. Overall, the data revealed that the students had complex and multifaceted views of teacher CS practices. On the one hand, the students perceived that teacher CS is a learning resource for content and language knowledge and it fulfils a role in providing positive psychological support for their learning. In addition, they also believed it acts as a vehicle that prepares them for their future language production. On the other hand, the students believed that this practice should be balanced, as extensive use has the potential to exert some adverse influence on their language learning and their learning autonomy.

As reported in Chapter 3, all groups of students chose to use Vietnamese (L1) for the interviews, so the interviewees' actual words are provided along with the English translations in order to capture their voice. G1 indicates that the data was obtained from focus group 1, G2 from focus group 2 and so on. Table 6.1 presents an overview of the findings.

Table 6.1: Students' perceptions of teacher CS practices

Student perceptions of teacher CS	
A learning resource	An aid to student comprehension
	An aid to student learning
	Positive affective support for learning
A source supporting language output	Potential to improve future language output
Potential dangers of extensive use	Impediment to language learning
	Barrier to learner autonomy

6.1 Teacher CS as a Learning Resource

An emphasis was placed on the value of teacher CS to learning, including CS as an aid to student comprehension, student learning and as a means by which a positive affective learning environment was created and sustained.

6.1.1 An aid to student comprehension

Overall, the students held positive views regarding the role of teacher CS, describing how it ensured the comprehensibility of teacher input, a finding that reflects students' perspectives on content-based classrooms in other investigations (Brooks-Lewis, 2009;

Gauci & Grima, 2013). The students used different wording such as "*hiểu thấu đáo*" "*hiểu cặn kẽ*", "*hiểu theo kiểu là không còn gì thắc mắc nữa hết*" [thorough comprehension], but emphasised the significance of teacher CS in enabling them to develop a deep level of understanding of subject content, particularly business terms and related concepts. This finding is similar to the view of a number of students in other content-based contexts, who also emphasised the importance of understanding concepts and terms integral to the disciplines (Alenezi, 2010; Ariffin & Husin, 2011; Mafela, 2009; Tien, 2013). One student's observation (G4), which was reiterated by several other students, was that CS facilitates a deeper processing of business terms than was possible by use of the definitions provided only in the L2:

Thường khi giáo viên giải thích business terms bằng tiếng Anh trước em vẫn hiểu nhưng em chỉ có thể hiểu rõ hơn khi thầy chốt lại bằng tiếng Việt.

[I can understand the teacher's explanations of business terms in English, but can only have a deep understanding when he reiterates those terms in Vietnamese.]

This view also emerged in G3 and G5, where a number of students commented that teacher use of CS when outlining the meaning of business terms renders those terms more comprehensible. This aspect of CS is particularly important given that most business terms are challenging and abstract. Like his fellow learners, one student in G2 expressed a strong view favouring teacher CS use for translating business terms, observing that the translations of English definitions of terms such as "payable amount" and "bond" crystallised his understanding.

The role of teacher CS as a support for understanding business concepts was also reflected in the discussions the students had about their preferred teaching methodology. Most of the students in the five groups supported a switch to the L1 to explain business terms or concepts:

Em sẽ dùng tiếng Việt để giải thích các terms. (G3)

[(If I were the teacher) I would shift into Vietnamese to explain business terms.]

Em nghĩ nên sử dụng tiếng Việt cho những khái niệm khó hiểu hoặc những khái niệm trong bài đọc. (G4)

[From my perspective, the teacher should use Vietnamese to explain challenging business concepts, particularly concepts in reading texts.]

Như em đã nói có những technical terms rất là khó thì làm sao tại em hiểu được khi thầy cô nói 100% tiếng Anh. Như đối với cô em có những từ cô giải thích bằng tiếng Anh nhiều lần nhưng em vẫn không hiểu ...nên bắt buộc phải có tiếng Việt. (G1)

[As I have mentioned, I do not think I can grasp business terms with English-only clarifications. I have failed to make sense of my teacher's explanations no matter how hard she has endeavoured to make herself understood in English. So, it is essential to include Vietnamese in teaching business concepts.]

Some students believed that teacher CS plays a role in clarifying the meaning of business concepts and this, in turn, increased their comprehension. One student in G1 explained that this practice helped her discern the distinction between seemingly similar business terms:

Em nghĩ việc giáo viên sử dụng tiếng Việt rất cần thiết vì nó giúp tại em phân biệt giữa các terms mà không bị nhầm lẫn những terms như piece work and out work chẳng hạn.

[I think it is necessary for teachers to rely on Vietnamese to differentiate similar terms such as "piece work" and "out work" as this can preclude student confusion.]

Two other students in G1 also subscribed to this belief adding that only when the term "piece work" was delivered in the L1 did they come to a realisation that they had misconstrued its meaning (based on the teacher's English explanation only, they had labelled it "*làm mẫu*" [demonstrate]). A student in G2 echoed this viewpoint, stating that CS is useful, as a teacher speaking English entirely can cause ambiguity and misunderstanding, particularly when it involves highly specialised disciplinary content, where several terms may have meanings different from their everyday usage:

Vì một số từ sẽ có từ chuyên ngành hoặc là từ phổ thông...thường khi nói ra tại em hay nói từ mang nghĩa phổ thông thôi nhưng mà trong chuyên ngành kinh doanh không mang nghĩa đó. Khi cô giải thích từ "specification" bằng tiếng Anh, em nghĩ đó là "quy cách" nhưng khi cô cho từ đó bằng tiếng Việt thì không phải như vậy.

[Some lexical items have different meanings, depending on the context in which they occur, in business or everyday English one. We usually misconstrue business terms in everyday English. For example, when the teacher explained the term "specification", I labelled it "quy cách". However, I recognised that this wording was not used in the business context when my teacher provided its Vietnamese translation.]

Additionally, some students in G2 and G4 stated that some business terms have varied meanings and are context-specific; therefore, teacher CS minimises student confusion in such situations. One student in G4 reported that the monolingual dictionary entries of business terms left her floundering about selecting the proper definition and the teacher's explanation in the L1 had a significant role to play:

Có nhiều terms em tra trong từ điển nhưng không biết chọn nghĩa nào nên đành chờ thầy cho tiếng Việt để phân biệt.

[On several occasions I am in two minds to determine one among several definitions of a term and have to wait for the teacher's clarification in the L1.]

The interviews also provided supporting evidence for the view that the students see teacher CS as a resource for their enhanced comprehension of English language features. This is consistent with the views expressed by students in a number of studies in which English grammar was believed to be more comprehensible after being explained or clarified in the L1 (Chavez, 2003; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008; Viakinnou-Brinston et al., 2012). Notably, one student in G3 and another in G4, who generally disagreed with teacher CS practices, nevertheless saw the value of teacher CS in aiding comprehension. These two students asserted that some English structure patterns and grammatical rules are complicated and challenging and the grammatical terminology used to present these structural patterns in the textbook is linguistically specific; thus, it is critical for teachers to switch to the L1 for the sake of their

comprehension. Other students in G2 concurred and emphasised the need for CS to ensure that grammar structures were understood accurately and quickly, a finding reflecting the students' views in Viakinnou-Brinston et al.'s (2012) study. Specifically, one student in G2 described how the teacher CS assisted him to make sense of grammar rules (some adverbs in the L2 allow either sentence-final or sentence-initial, while some do not - this compromised their comprehension if they were only explained in the L2).

Understanding the phonetic rules of the L2 was also perceived to be promoted by teacher CS. Some students in G4 stated that rules of stress on certain words in a sentence or syllables in a lexical item are linguistically specific and the teacher's explanation of these rules in the L1 assisted their comprehension. Two students in G4 observed:

Em thấy cách này tốt cho việc học của em ...vì em sẽ hiểu và chú ý đến cách nhấn trong câu. (G4)

[I think this practice is good for my English language learning as I can understand and pay attention to stress rules in a sentence.]

Thường mấy cái quy tắc phát âm này họ dùng thuật ngữ rất khó hiểu, tụi em đọc còn không hiểu thì làm sao mà vận dụng để phát âm cho đúng được. (G4)

[We find it very difficult to understand phonetic rules in English and wonder how we can have good pronunciation without understanding a single word if the teacher explains it in English only.]

Teacher CS to the L1 was also seen as a vehicle for aiding student comprehension of the implicit messages in some reading texts, particularly those texts requiring the skill of "reading between the lines" (G2). Like his fellow class members, one student in G5 said that teacher CS increased his understanding of passages using metaphors or similes.

Comprehension of some aspects of L2 pragmatic knowledge was believed to be boosted when the teacher switched to the L1. The following comments made by one student in G2 were also echoed by two other students in this group. When the teacher reminded the students of the importance of paying close attention to politeness norms in composing emails, she shifted into the L1 and asked what the students would reply to an email saying "*trả tiền tao mày*" [give back my money]; the pronouns used to address the

sender and receiver in the example are rarely used in formal contexts such as the classroom (Ho, 2003).]. This student commented that the impolite connotations could not be conveyed if the teacher solely used the L2 and the politeness norms in composing emails might be overlooked. One student in G1 expressed a similar sentiment when he commented on his teacher's L1 switch for the statement "your top looks nice" (a suggestion of how to start to converse with someone at an event), arguing that the translation raised his awareness of L2 politeness norms and acted as a reminder to help him exercise caution in determining appropriate topics for starting a conversation (given that it is not appropriate to comment on someone's outfit in the Vietnamese culture when we first meet them). It seemed to this student that the reminder would not have had the same force if it were in English rather than in Vietnamese:

Em nghĩ thầy dùng tiếng Việt trong trường hợp này rất thực tế hơn là your top looks nice vì khó liên tưởng hơn. Cũng là câu này nhưng khi thầy nói tiếng Việt em mới thấy không thích hợp đối với văn hóa Việt. Nhờ vậy nó giúp em cẩn trọng trong việc lựa chọn topics thích hợp để bắt chuyện với ai đó.

[I think teacher CS to reiterate the statement is more effective than the expression "your top looks nice" as it helps us connect with the Vietnamese culture and remember that it is not appropriate to comment on someone's appearance when we first meet them. This in turn helps me to be prudent in selecting proper topics for starting a conversation with someone.]

Further, teacher CS to the L1 was also perceived to act as a bridge to students' prior content knowledge which, in turn, contributed to their comprehension of new concepts. In line with one student's opinion in Brooks-Lewis' (2009) and Machaal's (2011) studies, a student in G1 indicated that her teacher's incorporation of the L1 activated and enabled her to make connections with her pre-existing knowledge and this fostered her comprehension of new concepts:

Nếu học môn này chỉ học toàn bằng tiếng Anh thì khi mà học những môn bổ trợ kinh tế ở ngoài như quản trị nhân sự người ta dùng tiếng Việt thì mình không hiểu được rằng những khái niệm đó mình đã học. Nên khi

thầy nói tiếng Việt em có thể liên hệ với những cái mình đã học rồi thì hiểu hơn những gì thầy đang giải thích.

[If we learned this unit in English only, we would not know that we have learned a lot of concepts when taking extra courses such as Human Resource Management which are taught in Vietnamese. Therefore, when the teacher switches to the L1 we can refer to what we have learned to gain a greater comprehension of what he is lecturing.]

Another student in G1 commented that when the teacher shifted into the L1, he recognised that he had already learned several concepts which augmented his understanding of new concepts and made his learning more meaningful.

In all, teacher CS practices were generally perceived to secure student understanding of both business concepts and some aspects of the English language.

6.1.2 An aid to student learning

Teacher CS was seen as playing a contributing role in building up student background knowledge. One student in G1 commented that teacher CS was essential for student learning of unfamiliar business concepts, exemplifying this by describing a previous learning experience in which her teacher provided an overview of the Public-Private Partnership model in the L1 (its definition and examples):

Em nghĩ giáo viên nên xây dựng kiến thức nền bằng tiếng Việt đối với những cái quá mới ví dụ hồi đó khi tụi em học PPP hồi đó thầy giảng sơ trước bằng tiếng Việt thì em thấy dễ tiếp thu hơn.

[I think teachers should provide background knowledge in the L1 for unfamiliar concepts. As far as I can recollect, when learning PPP we found my teacher's class more comprehensible as he provided a gist in the L1 beforehand.]

Another student in this group indicated her support for this practice:

Nếu em là thầy em sẽ giới thiệu sơ các khái niệm về business trước rồi mới đi vào chi tiết. Chẳng hạn em sẽ nói lan man trước chút xíu về Corporate Social Responsibility.

[I would brief students on basic information of a concept before going into detail if I were the teacher. For example, I would outline what the concept Corporate Social Responsibility involves.]

Similar to the view expressed by the students in G1, one student in G3 made the following suggestion: encourage the students to do pre-reading pertaining to a topic prior to the class so that they could have some schematic knowledge on which to build.

Teacher CS was also perceived to expand student content knowledge. One student in G2 reported that when his teacher shifted into Vietnamese to explain a concept, further information related to that concept was provided, which significantly extended his knowledge:

Khi cô giảng giải một khái niệm nào đó bằng tiếng Việt thường cô cho thêm thông tin thì em có thêm kiến thức đáng kể của ngành đó.

[When our teacher explains a concept in Vietnamese, she always provides us with further information, so we can considerably widen our knowledge.]

Another student in this group provided an example to underscore the importance of this practice being adopted by all teachers:

Chẳng hạn như khi cô dạy từ "agenda" cô giải thích thành phần của nó, cách nó sử dụng, tầm quan trọng của nó để tổ chức buổi họp thành công chẳng hạn thì em có thêm kiến thức về khái niệm này, ...nên em thấy nó rất quan trọng khi giáo viên cung cấp thêm thông tin thực tế nhằm giúp tụi em học hỏi thêm.

[For example, I got extra information related to the term "agenda" - such as how it is prepared and used at work and how important it is to ensure the success of a meeting - when my teacher switched to the L1 to explain it. It is critical for teachers to provide us with such practical information to broaden our knowledge.]

CS used by the teachers was believed to play a facilitative role in student learning, including aiding their retention of the meaning of business terms and getting them more involved in the learning process. Some previous studies have reported that students responded very positively to teacher CS, particularly to its role in the recollection of

lexical items (Guo, 2007; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). This finding is mirrored in the observations by some students in this study. The meaning of business terms was easily retrieved (G1) or retained longer (G3) when they were translated into the L1. One student in G2 commented that business terms that were provided in the L1 coupled with jokes considerably assisted her recollection of their meaning. Another student in G2 observed:

Nhiều khi tụi em phải học lượng từ mới rất nhiều nên nếu học hết giải thích bằng tiếng Anh thì hầu như không thể. Trong khi đó cô giải thích và show giải thích tiếng Anh trên bảng rồi giải thích lại bằng tiếng Việt thì tụi em sẽ nhớ gấp đôi.

[Given the fact that a large number of business items are provided in each teaching session, it is almost impossible for us to remember them all. However, this is resolved if my teacher explains and displays the definitions in the L2 and provides a brief translation in the L1.]

Some students also believed that teacher CS promotes student involvement in the language learning process. Given that students' language abilities were varied and the teaching of some challenging features of the English language through immersion might exclude some less linguistically developed students, CS was seen as a means by which these factors were accommodated. One student in G5 argued: the teacher's incorporation of the L1 to explain a grammatical point "must/could/may have, plus past participle" assisted all students to understand the point, given the clarity of L1 translations in expressing levels of deduction such as "*ắt hẳn là*", "*rất có khả năng*" and "*có thể*" [must be; be very likely; probably be]. However, there was not universal support for this position, with another student arguing that students should be organised into two levels for this unit, depending on their linguistic abilities:

Theo em để ai cũng tiếp thu được bài những bạn nào đủ khả năng tiếp thu 100% tiếng Anh thì sẽ đăng ký vào những lớp như vậy còn những bạn trình độ tiếng Anh chưa tốt thì nên học ở những lớp vừa có tiếng Anh vừa có tiếng Việt.

[I think in order to ensure that every student gets involved in a lesson, there should be two categories of Business English classes: one taught in

English only for high proficiency students and one in English and Vietnamese for others.]

Most of the students expressed their opposition to the proposed implementation of an English-only teaching policy, highlighting the importance they attach to the engagement of all students in a lesson. An L2-only approach would risk students being left behind and increase the likelihood of them dropping out of the course:

Em nghĩ việc mà ai cũng theo được bài rất quan trọng vì một khi không theo được sẽ dễ nản và chắc bỏ giữa chừng luôn (G1).

[I think it is very important for every student to be engaged in a class.

Otherwise, it is likely they will lose heart and quit the course.]

On the whole, the students considered teacher CS as an additional source of support for their learning processes.

6.1.3 Affective support for learning

Not only is teacher CS considered necessary to facilitate students' cognitive processing of content knowledge and the English language, it was also seen as a way of promoting positive affective states such as interest in learning, self-confidence and as a means of building a low-stress classroom atmosphere.

As observed by one student in G1, her engagement with the course was significantly increased by her teacher's use of the colloquial L1. When he introduced the class on business protocols with the expression "*I don't want you to nói lại*" [I don't want you to utter sentences that are both grammatically and pragmatically inappropriate], the language was very informal and more commonly used by young people ("*bình dân và gần gũi với giới trẻ*") and was in stark (and hilarious) contrast to the topic under discussion. More importantly, as argued by this student, this introduction stimulated her interest to learn the business protocols provided by the teacher. This view was supported by another student in this group, who believed that teachers should occasionally use colloquial expressions in the L1 in order to stimulate and sustain students' interest in learning. Along the same lines, some students in G2 and G4 stated that, at times, they found that their teachers' illustrations of business concepts through the use of jokes injected fun and provided inspiration for their learning in the unit. Similar to the experience described by some students in Gauci and Grima's (2013)

study, one student in G2 recalled his lack of interest in learning induced by his teacher's use of "formal L2" throughout the previous level of this unit:

...Khóa trước em học môn này...giảng viên đó nói hoàn toàn bằng tiếng Anh...thì em có góp ý là có đôi khi em cần cắt nghĩa bằng tiếng Việt nhưng giảng viên đó vẫn không thay đổi khiến tụi em chán nản trong môn học này khiến tụi em bỏ luôn môn này.

[Our former teacher of this unit used English-only while we badly needed L1 explanations and did make our request for L1 explicit to him.

However, to our disappointment, he kept using the L2 only which really dampened our interest in learning.]

The teachers' utilisation of CS played a role in instilling in students a certain level of confidence. One student in G1 believed her teacher's CS allowed her to cross-check her comprehension and, when her understanding was confirmed, she felt more confident about her language abilities. Another student in G1 referred to the example mentioned above (the teacher's switch to the L1 to remind the students to make utterances both pragmatically and grammatically appropriate) and commented that this really enhanced her positive attitude about her ability to get involved in the assigned role play. One student in G1 expressed her outright opposition to the proposed implementation of an English-only policy in teaching this unit on the grounds that students would not feel confident to contribute their opinions because of their lack of English language proficiency (students may insert L1 expressions and teachers would counter with appropriate equivalents in the L2). This finding substantiates prior research by Macaro et al. (2014) with Japanese students in an EFL study-abroad course in the UK which found that assistance provided by bilingual assistants encouraged students to say things that they perhaps might not otherwise have said.

It has been reported that teacher CS relieves the stress inherently associated with learning the L2 in the early stages of its development (Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Varshney & Rolin-Ianziti, 2006), a view with which some students in the study agreed. For instance, some students in G4 stated that it was very stressful for them to attend this unit as they were in the early stages of learning the L2 and simultaneously had to acquire content knowledge; therefore, the teacher's inclusion of the L1, either for teaching purposes or for more effective interaction with students, alleviated the pressure they felt they were

under. One student in G1 expressed strong opposition to the proposed adoption of an English-only policy because this would lead to a stifled and stressful classroom atmosphere. Another student in G1 suggested that, where possible, teachers employ CS to provide encouraging feedback to promote a positive and supportive learning environment:

Chẳng hạn giáo viên đôi khi có thể khuyến khích hoặc khen ngợi khi sinh viên tiến bộ thì không khí lớp học bớt căng thẳng. Tuy nhiên những giao tiếp thân mật kiểu này bằng tiếng Việt thì hiệu quả hơn.

[I think teachers can utilise some warm-hearted interaction with students such as praising students for their achievements to lighten the classroom climate. However, it is more effective for this to be done in Vietnamese.]

6.2 Teacher CS as Support for Language Production

In addition to the value attached to CS in support of their learning, the overriding concern that most students expressed was whether they could apply what they had learned to generate accurate English language output of their own. In some students' views, teacher CS assists them to develop appropriate word choices for translation tasks. One student in G1 argued that, without his teacher's provision of content terminology in the L1, he would not be able to use appropriate modes of expressions for business when undertaking L2 to L1 translation tasks. Like his fellow learner, one student in G4 observed:

Nhiều khi em dịch sát nghĩa thấy rất ghê nên khi thầy dùng tiếng Việt sẽ tốt cho việc em học môn dịch sau này.

[I find my word-for-word translation really inadequate, so his Vietnamese switches are definitely of great help for my translation assignments.]

With respect to translation from the L1 to the L2, one student in G1 maintained that her teacher's explanations and translation of business terms into the L1 facilitated her conceptual processing and this, in turn, assisted her to complete translation tasks:

Thường những phần dịch từ tiếng Việt sang tiếng Anh khá khó trong việc lựa chọn terms nào cho phù hợp. Nhưng khi thầy dùng tiếng Việt để giải

thích các terms or khái niệm giúp ấn tượng những từ đó xuất hiện đúng trong context đó và từ đó sẽ lựa chọn terms chính xác hơn.

[I find it is a real challenge to perform Vietnamese-English translation tasks due to the difficulty in choosing business terms. However, the teacher's translations of business terms remind me of the contexts of those terms, help me fully understand the concepts and assist me to select appropriate terms for my translation assignments.]

In some other students' views, teacher CS assists them to use English grammar properly. One student in G4 and another in G3 outlined the importance of appropriate syntax in their language output:

Mình nghĩ việc nói hay viết đúng ngữ pháp tiếng Anh rất quan trọng nên giáo viên cần phải dùng tiếng Việt (G3).

[It is very important for teachers to rely on CS to explain English structures so that students can produce grammatically appropriate sentences.]

Mình nghĩ phân ngữ pháp dạy bằng tiếng Việt thì mình sẽ hiểu thấu đáo hơn và sau này viết được câu cú đúng cấu trúc ngữ pháp.

[I think once English grammar is explained with the support of Vietnamese, students will have a good understanding and later they can produce proper sentence structures.]

Another student in G5 described how he believed this practice helped him use English grammar:

Khi must dịch ra tiếng Việt thì ai cũng biết là "phải" nhưng những điểm ngữ pháp như "must have done" or "should have done" lại mang nghĩa khác và khi thầy cho tiếng Việt tương ứng thì mình sẽ sử dụng nó chính xác hơn.

[I reckon everyone is aware of the Vietnamese word "must". However, "must have done" and "should have done" have different Vietnamese equivalents and are used in different contexts. The provision of these equivalents assisted me to use this grammatical point accurately.]

In addition, some students valued teacher CS, as it assists them to complete class assignments. One student in G4 described an example: the teacher explained the core message of a listening transcript in Vietnamese and then translated all the listening comprehension questions, which helped her complete the task. Like his fellow learners in studies by Alenezi (2010) and Tien (2013), another student in G2 strongly favoured teacher CS in teaching, explaining how it helped him obtain a deep understanding of lesson content which, in turn, increased his capacity to undertake end-of-term assessments.

Some students, who appeared to view benefits brought about by teacher CS from a longer term perspective, described how CS supported the development of knowledge they would use in their prospective careers. A comment made by one student in G2, which was also shared by some other students, was that this improved knowledge and understanding would benefit them when they enter the job market in the next few years. One student in G1 identified the importance of making sense of business terms so that he had the ability to discuss them in future workplace settings (a future colleague might discuss business terms and ask the student to provide Vietnamese translations). Aligned with this view, a student in G5 expressed the strong opinion that CS develops his vocabulary, which would be important in his work as an interpreter:

Một số business terms ví dụ như "depreciation" "margin" and "merger and acquisition" trong tiếng Việt phải ai nói ra thì mình mới biết rồi khi dịch cho đối tác mới dịch đúng được. Đâu phải mình là người Việt thì biết hết tất cả terms bằng tiếng Việt đâu.

[I think teacher CS is of great help as I can learn the expressions in Vietnamese for business terms such as "depreciation", "margin" and "merger and acquisition" so that I can use those Vietnamese terms accurately when working as an interpreter. Being Vietnamese does not necessarily mean that I am able to label English business terms appropriately in Vietnamese.]

6.3 Potential Dangers of Teachers' Extensive Use of CS

Although the students attributed a range of benefits to CS behaviour, they preferred CS to be restrained. Some of the students gave some examples when they felt CS was overused: according to some students in G2, prior to a listening activity in which the teacher had explained the concepts in the L1, he then kept translating all the listening comprehension questions into the L1, which they considered was redundant and counterproductive. Unlike a number of learners in other studies (Ahmad, 2009; Macaro, 1997; Macaro & Lee, 2012; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2006), who preferred class instructions to be given in the L1, some students in G4 disagreed with the teacher use of CS in this respect, claiming that teacher CS in this situation was not useful. They felt that English in those situations was simple and had become class routine. Some students in G1 and G4 said that CS for conveying the meaning of business terms occurred too frequently, as they could tell their teachers would switch to Vietnamese when it came to business terms. They outlined the negatives when CS was used extensively: an impediment to language learning and negative impact on the development of autonomous learning.

6.3.1 Impediment to language learning

According to the students, the negative consequences of CS include the impact on the opportunity to practise communicative skills and their cognitive reliance on the L1 for L2 processing.

Most students in all five groups argued that CS should be restricted to the teaching of business concepts and some aspects of English language only. Some of the students in G2 preferred other language skills such as listening and speaking skills to be taught entirely in the L2. If this did not occur, they would not have the necessary opportunities to practise communicative skills which may hinder their progress (G2). Though the students in this study shared the view of the students in studies by Kaneko (1992) and Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney (2008) that CS should be limited, their concerns were slightly different. While the students in Kaneko (1992) and Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney's (2008) were worried about the negative impact on their ability to adequately acquire L2 phonetic rules, the students in this study saw extensive use of CS as an impediment to practising communicative skills.

Some of the students in this study perceived that an abundance of teacher CS would trigger cognitive reliance on the L1 for L2 learning and that this may impact on their ability to cognitively process information in the L2. One student in G4 commented that his teacher's current CS led him not to make a concerted effort to comprehend the class in the L2 and expressed his concern over his ability to process information in the L2:

Đôi khi thầy dùng tiếng Việt nhiều quá thì tụi em sẽ ỷ lại vì giờ thầy nói tiếng Anh nhưng chút nữa thế nào thầy cũng nói lại bằng tiếng Việt rồi mình nghe sau cũng được rồi về lâu về dài cứ phải chờ tiếng Việt mới hiểu được.

[At times I think the teacher uses too much Vietnamese which might trigger our dependence on his translation. As I am aware of his pattern in teaching business terms, I just count on the reiteration in Vietnamese instead of endeavouring to understand his English explanations.]

This finding is similar to a view that was discussed by some students in the studies by Macaro et al. (2014), Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney (2008), Varshney & Rolin-Ianziti (2006) and Viakinnou-Brinson et al. (2012). One student in G1 suggested that explanations in the L2 and, more importantly, opportunities for students to self-discover meaning should precede their teachers' provision of the L1 translation, in order that students could digest their teachers' input or process the information provided, otherwise he would become dependent on his teacher CS for his L2 learning of business terms:

Nếu thầy cho hết tiếng Việt từ đầu thì em cũng chẳng quan tâm giải thích bằng tiếng Anh của thầy nữa. Thầy nên cho tiếng Anh trước rồi để sinh viên chủ động tìm nghĩa, rồi thầy hãy giải thích bằng tiếng Việt.

[I am a bit concerned with my teacher's current practice, as he sometimes provides Vietnamese for business terms preceding his English explanations, which I usually ignore. I would suggest that he explain those terms in English and allow us some time to discover the meanings and he should only provide translations when all alternative resources have been exhausted.]

6.3.2 Barrier to learning autonomy

A minority of students indicated their preference for limited use of the L1, arguing that extensive use of teacher CS had a negative impact on their motivation for learning. One

student in G4 observed that a minimal amount of teacher CS (in English grammar teaching) would challenge and push her harder, as she would have to pay closer attention to the class. She commented that on some occasions she did not think CS was necessary and, like the students in the Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney (2008) study, it would adversely affected her motivation for learning due to a lack of challenge, as she had no immediate need to process information in the L2. A student in G1 said that teacher CS should be strictly limited to particularly challenging teaching points in order to stimulate his independent learning. Another student in G1 held that his ability to take the initiative in learning might be affected by his teacher's frequent CS, arguing that he did not think he was proactive enough or well-prepared prior to every class, and these habits were compounded by his teacher's effort to make the class comprehensible through the use of CS. This student suggested that the students should be provided with in-class resources to discover the meaning of new concepts for themselves or by using collaborative learning strategies, such as pair or group work, to minimise the frequent use of CS.

Other students also expressed their concern about their teacher's extensive use of CS and suggested they should be involved in decisions regarding the extent of the teachers' use of the L1. One student in G1 stated that students' voices about the necessity of teacher CS should be heard and, at some point in their L2 learning process, CS could be omitted altogether. One student in G4 said that if she were the teacher she would not provide immediate translations for almost every business term or question in the listening and reading tasks as her teacher currently did, but instead would consult with her students:

Em nghĩ thầy nên hỏi trước tụi em không hiểu phần nào thì hãy cung cấp từ tiếng Việt.

[I think the teacher should ask whether we really need Vietnamese translations for business terms.]

6.4 Summary

This chapter has presented the students' views of teacher CS. Overall, the students expressed positive views of this practice indicating that it is a useful teaching strategy. Teacher CS was seen as a learning resource and a resource supporting language output. Teacher CS was perceived to promote student comprehension and to aid the learning of

content and target language knowledge. This practice was also believed to scaffold the students' language production in different contexts.

However, over-use of teacher CS was generally viewed as detrimental to student learning. The students indicated their preference for teacher CS to be constrained, as extensive use was believed to negatively impact on their L2 learning and trigger cognitive reliance on the L1 for L2 learning. The students also perceived that when the L1 was used to a great extent, their ability to develop as autonomous learners was negatively impacted.

Chapter Seven: Discussion and Conclusion

This study set out to investigate Vietnamese tertiary teachers' use of CS (code-switching) in Business English classes, their justifications for using these practices and their students' beliefs about their use. This chapter begins with a discussion about the similarities and differences between teacher and student beliefs and is followed by the implications of any identified differences. It concludes with a summary and some possible areas for future research.

7.1 Summary of the Findings

This study examined teachers' CS practices, the justifications the teachers articulated for their CS behaviour, as well as their students' perceptions of the CS practices employed. The main findings of this study were that CS was a typical phenomenon in the observed lessons. All the teachers used CS from English to Vietnamese, although teachers varied considerably in their use of CS. Three functional categories of teacher CS emerged: to assist constructing content and target language knowledge, to help with classroom management, and to facilitate teacher-student bonds.

Teachers valued CS to the L1 in their instructional practices. They deemed CS to be a useful teaching aid, a strategy for promoting student learning, and a means of supporting the development of a positive affective climate. The teachers had clear perspectives about students' current and long-term language needs and believed CS helps address those needs. The teachers' experiences as learners and teachers, their theoretical understanding of language learning and teaching, as well as their knowledge of the teaching context appeared to shape their beliefs about CS.

Overall, the students viewed their teacher CS in a positive light, considering this practice as both a learning resource and a means by which their language learning was supported. As a learning resource, the students believed that CS promoted their comprehension and learning of both content and language knowledge and created a positive learning environment and that it scaffolded their language output in different contexts. However, the students were of the firm view that CS practices should be limited to certain situations, as they believed that its extensive use hinders their learning of English and impacts negatively on their capacity for autonomous learning. Their

beliefs about CS appeared to be influenced by their learning experiences in particular contexts.

7.2 Teacher and Student Beliefs about Code Switching

Alignment between teacher and student beliefs

The findings suggest that there is considerable alignment between teacher and student beliefs about the merits of using CS: both groups believe that it aids student comprehension, supports student learning and encourages student language output.

7.2.1 Student comprehension

There is a convergence of teacher and student beliefs regarding the role of CS in promoting student understanding. One recurring theme was the teachers' concern for student comprehension of content knowledge. They espoused a strong belief that CS to the L1 reinforced or clarified the meaning of business terms and related concepts. Classroom observations revealed that the teachers acted on these beliefs, as evidenced by the predominance of CS occurrences in episodes when content-related issues were discussed, particularly when the meaning of content terms was conveyed and negotiated.

Student beliefs about the value of CS in aiding their comprehension appeared to correspond to those of their teachers. They reported that teacher CS assisted their understanding of business terms and concepts and that, consequently, they were able to discern a distinction between seemingly similar terms. These findings support previous research suggesting that CS to the L1 develops clarity about confusing language items (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Piasecka, 1988). These findings also support Widdowson's (2003) claim that explicit reference to the L1 renders the input more comprehensible and meaningful. In particular, these findings reflect discussions in the literature about the important role of CS to the L1 for meaning processing (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2009). Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) suggest that there is a common conceptual base mediating semantic processing in bilingual brains. Kroll and Stewart (1994) and Kecskes and Papp (2000) propose that learners acquire unfamiliar L2 words through their L1 equivalents on a corollary of the strong conceptual connections between a concept and its L1 word.

Some of the teachers and students seemed to have a similar view about the role that CS plays in providing a foundation for the development of content knowledge, which in turn further enhances student comprehension. Some teachers introduced the business concepts in the L1 prior to detailed explanations in the L2, a practice that is supported by some learners. This finding is compatible with Krashen's (1996) claim that background knowledge acquired in the students' L1 makes the input received in English more comprehensible, with Cummins's (2008) recommendation that background knowledge be built through the L1 so that learners can operate at a high level in their L2, and with Jenkins' (2010) suggestion that the L1 is instrumental in forming the backbone of comprehension.

For some teachers and students, the mastery of the language structures was their primary focus and CS was perceived to facilitate this mastery by strengthening student understanding of metalinguistic knowledge of English (structure patterns, phonetic rules). Therefore, in their teaching practices, teachers translated grammatical structures into Vietnamese, or alternated between the two languages, to explain English grammatical structures and phonetic rules. A number of the students endorsed their teacher's actions, highlighting how important they felt it was for their teachers to CS to help them make sense of these different language elements. This finding is supported by the research literature which describes how CS is expedient and efficient in explaining target linguistic structures (Cook, 2001; Swain, Kirkpatrick & Cummins, 2011).

Possible explanations for these findings may reside in the Vietnamese educational context and the synthetic approach adopted in the English language programs taught there. As outlined in Chapter 1, the Vietnamese educational system is very much "knowledge-based" (Le, 1999) and, thus, the secondary and tertiary English teaching focuses mainly on language forms (Pham, 1999; To, 2010; Tran, 2013). This entrenched orientation (Pham, 1999) manifests itself in "grammar-focused, textbook-bound, and teacher-centred" pedagogy (Le, 2007, p.174). As a consequence, English assessments focus on measuring learners' lexico-grammatical knowledge (Hoang, 2010). Further, it is of note that Vietnamese learners consider grammar as an integral component of English learning (Bernat, 2004; Duong & Nguyen, 2006; Pham, 2007; Tomlinson & Dat, 2004). Therefore, taking these contextual factors into account, it is no surprise that the teachers and students in this study expressed strong support for CS, particularly when the lesson was focussed on English grammar. A case in point was the two

integrated assessments (mid-course and end-of-course) that the students in this study had to sit each level of this unit. These tests examine student knowledge of business terms and English grammatical structures, and represented 30% and 15%, respectively of the total score. In addition to these business and grammatical terms, the students were required to compose a short paragraph, demonstrating their understanding of a particular business topic and their ability to compose grammatically correct texts. These test requirements may explain why the teachers and students supported the use of CS to gain the requisite understanding of content knowledge, content terms and grammar. Students' English learning at secondary schooling level as proclaimed by MOET (Ministry of Education and Training, 2007) indicates that the focus is on English language knowledge. This factor may have explained the teachers and students finding most business concepts unfamiliar and the needs for use of the L1 for the sake of comprehension. A further complexity is that most of the teaching materials used for ELT in Vietnam are imported from the West and the concepts they introduce are not contextualised (Pham, 1999, Nguyen D.T, 2007), a factor that may have contributed to the teachers and students determining that CS was essential for providing students with sufficient background content knowledge.

7.2.2 Student learning

Teachers and students agreed that CS is a useful tool for making links between new and existing knowledge, including L1 cultural understanding. For example, a number of the teachers described how CS assisted students to connect with their pre-existing knowledge, a perspective shared by many students. The two groups of participants shared the belief that student learning is a cumulative process building on previous learning and that it is crucial for the inclusion of the L1 in teaching for the engagement of prior knowledge (Cummins, 2008; Skinner, 1985), building from the known (Swain, Kirkpatrick & Cummins, 2011), and learning the new on the basis of the familiar (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Corder, 1992; Lucas & Katz, 1994; Van Lier, 1995; Widdowson, 2003).

Making connections between the Vietnamese and the target language cultures, particularly in relation to pragmatic knowledge, was also emphasised. Therefore, it seems that, for both the teachers and students, using their own knowledge of the L1 and its related cultural practices can act as a springboard to connections with English

equivalents. In this way, student learning of L2 pragmatic knowledge can be boosted. This finding reinforces the premise of the Interdependence Hypothesis (Cummins, 1991; 2005b) which maintains that by employing bilingual instructional strategies, conceptual knowledge is transferrable across languages and bidirectional inter-linguistic awareness is developed. It also supports the suggestion by Skinner (1985) that bilingual instructional strategies ensure cognitive transfer of concepts from the L1 to L2.

The teachers' and students' responses are also quite similar with regard to the role of CS in the retention of content knowledge. Some of the teachers described how CS enables students to remember and recollect the meaning of content terms, playing a role in the storage of input in the long-term memory. The students also saw CS as an aid to memorisation. Butzkamm and Caldwell's (2009) and Macaro's (2005) research also supports the idea that CS is effective for meaning retention. In an environment such as Vietnam, where there are deep-seated views that the goal of learning is to memorise ideas as an effective way to accumulate knowledge (Huyen, 2002; Duong & Nguyen, 2006; Pham, 1999), this is not an inconsiderable advantage. Thus, the influence of the traditional learning culture in Vietnam may also have contributed to the teachers' and students' perceptions of the positive role of CS in this regard.

It can also be seen that the teachers and students strongly support the idea that CS has a beneficial influence in the affective domain. Some of the teachers and students described the stress of learning content through the medium of a yet-to-be developed language: high levels of concentration are required to simultaneously process the form of the language and the lesson content; therefore, both teachers and students justified the use of CS as a means of relieving stress. The stress level felt and discussed by two groups may be related to the organisation of the Business English unit in the training program: following only two terms undertaking courses for General English, students are required to enrol in this unit, suggesting that students are not prepared for the study load of this unit.

The goal of maintaining a relaxed classroom climate (such as by telling jokes in the L1) was seen as crucial for establishing and fostering teacher-student bonds. A number of teachers were seen to provide encouragement or make jokes using the L1. The students demonstrated strong support for these actions. They not only advocated for the teachers' use of colloquial expressions and jokes in the L1, but suggested that, where possible,

teachers provide encouragement in the L1 as a way to motivate and support their interest in learning. Such a finding resonates with suggestions by Cook (2001) and Littlewood and Yu (2011); namely, that using the L1 is useful for affective and interpersonal support. It also accords with claims made by Adendorff (1996), Canagarajah (1995) and Lin (1996) that encouragement and compliments in the L1 have added force and are more effective than those in the L2, as the CS affirms shared cultural norms and values (Lin, 1996). Given the formal and hierarchical relationships between teachers and students in Vietnam (Nguyen & McInnis, 2002; Tran, 2013), it is understandable the two groups consider CS as a means of building rapport.

7.2.3 Student language output

The use of CS for scaffolding student language output, particularly around the type of language they may need for subsequent courses and for their prospective careers, received considerable attention. Some of the teachers believed that their CS practices provided students with preparation for learning in future units, such as the Interpreting-Translation courses or the next level of Business English. Students believed it contributed to their ability to generate accurate language output. Both the teachers and students saw the long-term benefits of CS, expressing the belief that CS is useful for preparing the students for future employment.

Such a finding is compatible with claims made by Cummins (2007) and Ellis (1985), who assert that CS scaffolds and improves learner performance in the L2. The fact that English teaching in Vietnam has long emphasised the accuracy of production rather than communicative competence (Pham, 1999; Tran, 2013) may account for the teachers' and students' attribution of CS as an aid to student language output. Further, the Interpreting-Translation courses which are a part of the curriculum may explain why the two groups highlighted the role of CS in preparing students for the next phase of their learning.

Differences between teacher and student beliefs

Although there is considerable alignment between the teacher and student beliefs about CS, the two groups vary on certain points. The differences relate to CS frequency and the use of CS in classroom discourse.

There were marked differences of opinion about the extent to which CS should be employed in teaching. All of the teachers stated that they strove to maximise the L2, while one teacher strongly cautioned against any other than the most minimal use of CS. However, despite the teachers' stated efforts to refrain from CS, some of the students reported that the teachers were using CS frequently and these students believed it had negative consequences, such as reducing the necessary exposure to the L2 which, in turn, had the potential to impede the development of their language skills. Further, its excessive use was seen to be likely to discourage independence and make students less responsible for their own learning. In contrast, there was very little discussion about the drawbacks of CS practices by the teachers. This finding mirrors that of Varshney and Rolin-Ianziti (2006) who found that, while the students discussed some negative aspects of CS such as the impact it may have on L2 proficiency development and cognitive reliance on the L1 for L2 processing, only one teacher in that study mentioned that the overuse of CS reduces student capacity to think in the L2.

The teachers and students also had disparate beliefs about the use of CS as an aid for classroom management. Some of the teachers felt strongly that CS is useful when communicating procedural instructions. However, many of the students did not value CS when used for this purpose, indicating that English is more than sufficient for procedural instructions. This accords with Al-Nofaie's (2010) research in which disagreement among Saudi teachers and students about using Arabic in English classrooms was described - the teachers expressed a need for the classroom instructions to be explained in the L1 while the students disagreed with their teachers as the instructions were both clear and familiar. However, this finding challenges the recommendation by Littlewood and Yu (2011) that CS can be useful for classroom management purposes.

Such teacher-student disagreement over CS frequency and its use as an instrument for classroom management warrants early discussion and negotiation between teachers and students so that CS behaviour can be agreed upon and may bridge the gap between teacher and student beliefs about the appropriateness of its use.

7.3 Factors Shaping Teacher and Student Beliefs about Code Switching

7.3.1 Teacher beliefs

When teachers provided a rationale for their CS practices they often referred to their own experiences as learners and their teaching background. They also reflected upon how particular contextual factors influenced their linguistic choices. In many ways this reflects a Deweyan position (as interpreted by Barcelos, 2003), whereby the principles of continuity and interaction act to inform an individual's perceptions.

Some of the teachers had had negative experiences as learners and this appeared to help them anticipate problems their students may face if they taught only in the L2. Some believed in the usefulness of CS for particular teaching sessions because, as learners, they also were exposed to CS in those sessions. The connections the teachers made with their own experiences as language learners appeared to give them a feeling of "walking in the students' shoes". They particularly supported the use of CS to help students avoid having the negative experiences they had had.

The teachers' professional experiences also appear to have played a significant role in their beliefs about CS. Some of the teachers recounted their experiences with English-only instruction and how this convinced them of the need for CS. Moreover, observing the benefits of utilising CS themselves when teaching other units reinforced the belief of some teachers about the need to engage in CS.

The teachers discussed other contextual factors - curriculum requirements, student evaluation of teacher performance and student aptitude - that contributed to their CS behaviour. The curriculum mandates that all students undertake Interpreting-Translation units and this appears to have influenced the belief of teachers that students need CS so that they can learn well in these courses. In other words, the objectives of the training program may have been a contributing factor in shaping teacher beliefs about what is needed, thus shaping their teaching behaviour. The questionnaire-based student evaluation of teacher performance that is used at this research site also appears to have had an impact on teacher beliefs about the need for including CS as a teaching strategy. Their anticipation of complaints from students about the difficulties of understanding input in the L2 only seemed to persuade some to CS. Hence, CS was seen as one way to deal with perceived institutional pressure. In this complex scenario, students' own limited knowledge of English and their (sometimes) limited disciplinary

background knowledge may also have had a considerable influence on teacher CS practices. Their interactions with the students seemed to confirm the need for CS to accommodate their different language strengths and varying levels of content knowledge.

7.3.2 Student beliefs

Student beliefs about CS appear to originate from their negative experiences in previous courses where the L2 was used exclusively. Some reported that their experiences of learning in the L2-only had caused them to lose interest in the subject and this had convinced them of the value of CS. However, their positive experiences with CS strengthened their belief about the usefulness of CS to their learning. For instance, many acknowledged that CS was helpful for constructing background knowledge. As such, these findings suggest that student beliefs about CS appeared to be experientially informed.

7. 4 Implications of the Study

CS was a typical phenomenon in the observed classes serving particular pedagogical functions and was supported in certain contexts. This study reinforces the call in the literature to recognise CS as a useful instructional resource.

Teacher and student beliefs about CS derive from both their experiences and contextual learning factors. Therefore, one implication for practice is that rather than adopting a top-down model dictating a "one-size-fits-all" approach to L1 and L2 use, the need is for an informed pedagogical eclecticism that focuses on "what language learning and teaching mean to local participants in the full context of their lives, within but also beyond the classroom" (Tudor, 2003, p.8). This call is consistent with that of Widdowson (2003, p.159) who advocates for an English pedagogy "which is global in its use, and local in its learning" and the need to consider the context of learning and the specific goals being pursued by learners (Auerbach, 1993; Stern, 1992). Cook (2001, p.403) believes that "language teaching methodology has to be responsive to the multiple goals within one educational context and the varying aims across contexts". Thus, the key to dealing with language choices in instruction is flexibility, encompassing an approach that is responsive and pragmatic, according to the context.

In this study, CS was clearly evident in different aspects of teaching, appeared to serve sound pedagogical functions and was favoured by the teachers and students. The findings of this study suggest that language teachers should not suppress the use of CS or endeavour to use the L2 entirely. Rather, use of CS should be encouraged, provided that most of the interaction between teachers and learners is in the L2, and that a variety of strategies are used along with CS. To assist the appropriate use of CS practices, teachers should be encouraged to develop personalised and localised strategies for CS use, based on their own evidence and reflections together with improved theoretical understanding, which align with their own beliefs and the specific factors of their teaching contexts.

Teachers and students disagreed on some aspects of CS. This study suggests that teachers would benefit from creating opportunities to discuss with students the benefits and pitfalls, as well as the rationale and justifications, for their pedagogical decisions (Auerbach, 1993, 1995; Levine, 2011). It is crucial for teachers to be aware of, and to understand, their students' viewpoints in order to effectively facilitate their learning. To minimise miscommunication or conflicts, it is advantageous if students are involved in general pedagogical discussions so that teachers can take account of their suggestions and preferences about the medium of instruction. As such, students' perspectives and beliefs about those issues can be made explicit and can be considered in establishing the teaching approach. Establishing language use in this manner suggests "a shift toward shared authority" (Auerbach, 1995, p.28) or a form of explicitly empowering students in pedagogical decisions (Levine, 2011). Empowering students in the classroom decision-making process is also advantageous, as this "fosters a feeling of joint control and personal involvement" (Bailey et al., 1996, p.25).

Policy makers at the host university would benefit from being informed about teacher and student perceptions about the use of CS in tertiary teaching. In particular, the data does not provide support for the proposed implementation of an English-only approach. The findings suggest strongly that this policy would benefit from re-examination and amendment. This study indicates that an "English-mainly" policy, as suggested by Cook (2001) and McMillan and Rivers (2011) should be adopted.

The findings of this study suggest that teacher education programs should strive to dispel misperceptions of the L1 use in L2 teaching. These findings also provide support

for teacher education programs that foster teacher reflection on their own experiences, that recognise the power of teachers' own stories (Golombek, 1998), and that give due recognition to learners' perceptions. Teaching internships that provide pre-service teachers with opportunities to reflect on, articulate and compare their experiences with those of their learners is one way of facilitating these outcomes. Internships will assist pre-service teachers to develop an understanding of what instructional practices, including CS practices, work best and provide them with an opportunity to link coursework content with its practical application. Self-reflective practices - an approach central to several teacher development programs - offer teachers an efficient means of making sense of theory (Clarke, 1994; Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 1994; Korthagan & Kessels, 1999; Li, 2013). This approach to practice-theory development may be more efficient when an extended period of field experience is combined with repeated cycles of guided reflection which can assist pre-service teachers to develop their own teaching philosophy and adapt their practices to classroom contexts (Lockhart & Richards, 1994; Richards & Pennington, 1998). It is an approach that seems ideally suited to the vexed issue of CS in classes where L2 is promoted as the medium of instruction.

7.5 Recommendations for Future Research

This study is situated in a particular and limited context and further research is warranted to ascertain the value of CS as a scaffolding technique in language pedagogy more generally.

An issue that calls for further exploration is how the nature of teacher CS practices and teacher and student perceptions evolve when the students attain higher proficiency levels and accumulate more content knowledge. Adopting a longitudinal research methodology may yield additional information. Research involving other agents in the education process, such as policy makers and educational authorities, may also provide useful information on beliefs about CS practices.

It may be fruitful to undertake a comparative study of teacher and student participants drawn from two or more learning settings or from two or more cultural and educational backgrounds. Such studies could contribute greatly not only to a situated understanding of CS practices but understanding the commonalities and differences between language practices across settings may reveal further useful information.

It would also be useful to investigate teacher-related factors in relation to CS, such as teachers' proficiency levels in the target language, years of teaching experience, capacity for self-reflection as a vehicle for pedagogical improvement, education history, learning styles and local contexts and explore how these factors influence teachers' decisions about the use of CS, as well as their CS patterns.

Further research that documents the effects of teacher CS use on L2 learning, particularly the impact of teacher CS on students' language performance, would be a useful contribution to the field.

Finally, replication studies in different institutional settings are needed to expand the research on CS practices in order to paint a broader picture of its patterns, its relation to wider contexts, and its pedagogic functions.

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APPENDIX 1

INFORMATION SHEET & CONSENT FORM

Classroom Code Switching of Business English Teachers at Tertiary Level: A Vietnamese Perspective.

You are invited to participate in a research study into classroom language use. The primary objective of the study is to gain an understanding of language use by Vietnamese teachers at tertiary level in content-based Business English classes.

If you agree to participate, your classes will be observed three times over the course of a semester. Observations will take place in week three, six and nine and will be audio-visually recorded. Shortly after classroom observations, at a mutually convenient time, you will be invited to comment on language use from video recordings.

The expected benefits associated with your participation are the information about the experiences in learning research methods.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time, with or without stating a reason and with no penalty.

During and on the completion of the study, the recorded data will be kept confidential and stored in the School of Education at Curtin University. The results of this study will be published but no data will be used that could reveal your identity. Only the investigator and supervisors will have access to the information you provide except as required by law.

This study has been approved by the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee. The approval number is EDU-8211. If you would like to discuss any aspects of this study, please feel free to contact either the investigator or the supervisor at the following contact details:

Investigator

**Pham Thi Ngoc Hoa
Dunworth**

School of Education

Faculty of Humanities

Curtin University

Email: hoa.pham1@postgraduate.curtin.edu.au;

Supervisor

Associate Professor Katie

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Telephone: +61 8 9266 4227

Telephone: 0403878804

Should you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of this study, please contact

Secretary - Human Research Ethics Committee

Email: hrec@curtin.edu.au

Telephone: 92662784

Mailing address: Office of Research Ethics Committee, Curtin University of Technology, GPO Box U1987, Perth WA 6845.

Thank you for considering participating in this study.

Best regards,

Pham Thi Ngoc Hoa

Student Investigator

CONSENT FORM

Classroom Code Switching of Business English Teachers at Tertiary Level: A Vietnamese Perspective.

Investigator: Pham Thi Ngoc Hoa

Date:

I have been informed of and understand the purposes of the study presented on the participant information sheet. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions and have discussed any concerns with the investigator.

I understand my participation is voluntary and I can withdraw at any time without prejudice. Any information which might potentially identify me will not be used in published material.

I agree to participate in this study as outlined to me.

Name:.....

Signature:.....

Please return this form to the investigator:

Pham Thi Ngoc Hoa

School of Education

Faculty of Humanities

Email: hoa.phamthingoc@hoasen.edu.vn

hoa.pham1@postgraduate.curtin.edu.au

Telephone: 0403 878 804

APPENDIX 2

SAMPLE LESSON OBSERVATION

Teacher 1: Lecture 2 (24/04/2012)

The session objectives: Employment issues/ Active listening and resolving conflicts/
Report writing

Part 1: Reading session

The teacher gave a summary of the text with some highlighted ideas and key words. Students were asked to read the text and find out the evidence to clarify the highlighted ideas and elaborate the meaning of the key words. Students also had to explain some business terms (high staff turnover; significant growth; criticism; attrition rate; retention rate; unfair tactics; mature employees; do not have any jobs to go to; employment tenure)

The teacher showed students the mind map and students had to summarise the text, using the mind map.

The teacher modelled ways of finding the answers and later students completed the task.

Part 2: The teacher provided and explained meaning and the differences of terms related to work (part-time work; full-time work; casual work; fixed term / temp/ contract work; telework; piecework; outwork)

When explaining seasonal work, the teacher gave examples and L1 *cong viec thoi vu* and pointed out the differences with casual work (1:20:20).

The teacher continued explaining piecework and gave L1 equivalent for this term (1:24:18).

The teacher explained the term outwork in L2 and gave L1 equivalent: *lam tai nha* (1:26:06).

Part 3: Short reports: The teacher explained the format of the report (introduction-reference /reason; body: details / conclusion-recommendation)

The teacher gave a sample of short reports and explained the format and language use in the report.

Students then practised writing the report using the provided clues.

APPENDIX 3
OBSERVATION & INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Weeks 3/6/9	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Saturday
Morning	Teacher 1	Teacher 3	Teacher 2	Teacher 4
Afternoon	Teacher 5			

Week 10	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Saturday
Morning	Focus Group 1	Focus Group 3	Focus Group 2	Focus Group 4
Afternoon	Focus Group 5			

APPENDIX 4

SAMPLE GUIDE QUESTIONS

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (STUDENTS)

1. How is your study going?
2. Does your teacher always use English in instruction?
Has your teacher ever used Vietnamese? If so, when would he use Vietnamese?
3. Let's watch the following video clips. What are your comments on this practice?
Can you see any benefits of your teacher's use of Vietnamese toward your BE learning? What are the pluses?
Are there any drawbacks of your teacher's use of Vietnamese toward your BE learning? What are the minuses?
4. What do you think if your teachers teach exclusively in English?
5. If you were a teacher, how would you select language for instruction that can improve students' BE learning?
Is there anything you came up with but you didn't get a chance to say? Have we missed anything?

STIMULATED RECALL INTERVIEWS (TEACHERS)

1. Factual questions: What language policy do you have in your class regarding the use of English and Vietnamese? What is the rationale for this policy? What changes have you experienced in pursuing this policy?
2. Analytical questions: What were you doing in this scene? What were you thinking at that moment? What were you noticing about students at that moment? Why did you use that language? Did you intentionally switch codes or your code switching is spontaneous?
3. Evaluative/ opinion questions: What are your views of using CS in BE teaching? What are the roles of using Vietnamese in your teaching? What has been the most useful/detrimental aspect of CS in your BE teaching? How do you view the concept of CS? Should Vietnamese be completely excluded from L2 classroom at all costs? What are your perceptions and evaluations of your practice in this scene?
4. Let's discuss three theoretical positions:
 - a. Virtual position: The classroom is like the target language, so we should aim at total exclusion of the L1 and there is no pedagogical value in L1 use.
 - b. Maximal position: There is still no pedagogical value in L1 use, but perfect teaching and learning does not exist. Resorting to L1 is unavoidable.
 - c. Optimal position: There is some pedagogical value in L1 use and some aspects of learning can be enhanced by use of the L1. There should be a

constant exploration of pedagogical principles regarding whether and in what ways L1 use is justified.

APPENDIX 5

FURTHER EXAMPLES OF CODE SWITCHING PRACTICES

*** Lexical switching**

While eliciting answers from students to some listening comprehension questions, T4 translated a business term into Vietnamese:

"...Can you listen for the content? What are they talking about? Did you hear the word 'order'? *đơn đặt hàng* [order]...Now, more orders mean staff have to work extra time ..." - T4(L3).

There were several incidents in which single word CS in Vietnamese were followed by English definitions as illustrated in the following examples.

While elaborating on a reading passage, T2 defined a business term in English and provided its equivalent in Vietnamese afterwards:

"...Now some key words in the listening section: 'feasible' means able to be made, done or achievable. In Vietnamese, we say *khả thi* [feasible]..." - T2(L1).

Business terms were also defined and contextualised in English, and then translated into Vietnamese.

While T5 explained a reading passage in English, he shifted into Vietnamese for one business term:

"...incentives refer to some forms of encouragement; for example, if you do your work well, you will have money, holiday, benefits *đãi ngộ* [incentives]..." - T5(L1).

*** Phrasal switching**

In this excerpt, when T5 discussed the term "outsource", he first provided the English definition and used Vietnamese to communicate its meaning in the following manner:

"....the company will manage by itself. Mr. Douglas insisted that by outsourcing - who can tell me the meaning of outsource? It means that your company doesn't do the project

but hires another company to do the work or provide goods for that company; you don't do it by yourself - *Thay vì làm nhà thầu chính mình thầu hết, thì thuê, đưa công ty khác làm cái đó, thầu cái đó mình chỉ quản lý thôi* [Instead of carrying out a project, providing a service or making a product yourself, you will have someone else to do it for you]- usually with lower cost, so you can save money T5(L1).

*** Functional categories of CS**

Constructing meaning of business terms

The teachers provided L1 equivalents immediately after introducing them in English:

"...What is the next activity in planning a project? ...The next is to allocate resources - *hoạch định rõ nguồn lực, allocate resources...*"-T5(L1).

In a number of other episodes, the teachers used CS to reinforce the meaning of business terms after providing definitions and contextualisation clues for the terms in English

"...Now 'outwork' is... work that you employ someone to work at home, apart from the factory or employer. For example, in the garment industry, the factory produces clothes, but they can have employees to put on buttons at home for extra pay, so 'outwork' means *gia công...*"-T1(L2).

The role of teacher CS in reinforcing the meaning of content terminology was also observed in some examples in which the content terminology was defined in English, then restated and amplified in Vietnamese.

"...Innovative products are coming onto saturated markets all the time. One more term - 'saturated market' - what does that mean? It refers to a place where there are more goods than people who want to buy them *thị trường đã bão hòa, có nhiều sản phẩm hơn người ta cần* [a saturated market, a market with supplies surpassing demands]. That's the saturated market..."-T5(L3).

-Constructing target language grammatical structures

When delineating the usage of "may/might/could" in negative sentences, T5 provided a brief translation in Vietnamese for these modal verbs and incorporated some statements in Vietnamese in his otherwise English discourse to clarify "may not; might not" and "could not".

"....Might not, may not - "có lẽ không", tuy nhiên trong câu phủ định chữ - 'couldn't' - không mang nghĩa "có lẽ không" nữa mà dùng để khẳng định impossibility-không thể nào có được. Mức độ của nó là gần 100%, có dấu hiệu rõ ràng, không thể nào dùng 'couldn't'...["Might not; may not" means 'be not likely to' but in negative sentences; 'couldn't' - does not bear the same meaning as 'may not or might not'. 'Couldn't' is used to express impossibility].

Explaining phonetic rules:

If you say something like 'Get the report done by Friday', it sounds very strong and not very polite. It's a good idea to say 'Would you mind getting the report done by Friday?'...Now [there are] many more phrases you can use to make your requests sound more polite. Now listen and practise the first: 'Is there any way you can...?' *Cái này tôi nói lý giải 1 chút về ngữ âm. Thông thường chữ 'can' trong câu 'I can do it' thì bạn đọc là '...' nhưng trong speaking thì bạn đọc nhẹ thôi, khi nào nhấn mạnh bạn mới đọc là '...' Nếu tôi nói I can do it mà bạn nhấn mạnh chữ can thì có nghĩ là nhiều người nói tôi không biết làm but tôi nhấn mạnh là tôi biết, lúc đó bạn đọc nhấn vào can. Nhưng khi bạn nhấn vào I, đọc chữ can nhẹ thôi thì lúc đó nghĩa là chỉ có tôi mới biết làm thôi còn mấy người khác không biết. Còn nếu bạn nhấn vào it và nhấn can nhẹ thôi thì có nghĩa là tôi chỉ làm được chuyện đó thôi còn mấy chuyện kia tôi không biết. Vậy âm nhấn chỗ nào thì nghĩa sẽ thay đổi. Nên nếu bạn nhấn vào can thì người ta sẽ hiểu nhầm bạn đang khẳng định 1 điều gì đó. Nên những chữ như vậy bạn sẽ chuyển sang âm nhẹ thôi, như chữ 'could' or 'would'. [...I would like to have some explanations on the phonetic rules. In this sentence 'I can do it', 'can' should be pronounced slightly as XXX. It should be pronounced YYY if you want to place an emphasis. When I say 'I can do it' and stress the word 'can', I would like to imply that 'I am able to do it' while other people might think 'I am not'. When you place stress on 'I', not on 'can', which should be pronounced as XXX. That means 'no one can do it except me'. When you stress 'it', it means 'I can do it*

only and nothing else'. So the meaning of a sentence varies, depending on the position of the stress. The same rules should be applied for 'could' and 'would'...]. Now repeat after me please. 'Is there any way you can....? I don't suppose you could...; Do you mind? Would you do me a favour and...? I am wondering if you could...? Would you mind?'. T4(C1).